

AN INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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AN INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR USE IN HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

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Authorized by the Advisory Board of Education for Use
in the Schools of Manitoba

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PREFACE

The present text is intended for use in High Schools. Its main purpose is to furnish the student with a working knowledge of the structure of the sentence and the relation of its elements. It follows the same general plan as that of the Introductory English Grammar, so that in going forward to the High School the learner will find himself on familiar ground.

The first three chapters contain in brief form, suited to the capacity of the student, a restatement of what is included in Part I of the introductory book. The more important technical terms convenient in the study of grammar are also introduced.

The study of grammar as a science is taken up in Part II, which comprises Chapters IV to XIX. As indicated above this is the most important part of the subject. It includes the classification of sentences, an analysis of the sentence into its elements, the classification of these elements, and an account of their syntactical relations.

In view of the more comprehensive and detailed treatment required in a text of this grade the subject matter and the illustrative exercises are naturally more difficult, but the utmost care has been taken to include only what is of practical value to the user of English as a means of communication. Nothing has been inserted for the purpose of providing gymnastic exercises in the supposed interest of general or abstract formal discipline. The study of grammar should be undertaken for a very

practical objective purpose, that of acquiring a first-hand acquaintance with the sentence and its elements as instruments of speech. Skill in the actual use of the instrument is to be aimed at rather than a mere knowledge of grammatical distinctions. A grammatical distinction that has no relation to one's actual use of language is not worth while. The prospective inclusion of many new branches in the course of study of the modern high school also points to a careful and economic disposal of the time of the teacher of English. Only what is fundamental and necessary can maintain a position in the crowd of studies necessary under present conditions.

An historical survey of the language is given in Part III. This branch of the subject, if properly presented, can hardly fail to add greatly to the student's interest in the mother tongue and his understanding and appreciation of it. One of the best ways of understanding a thing is to enquire how it came to be what it is. The historical aspect of grammar is of value not as so much antiquarian lore, but as throwing light upon present day English, and as furnishing an explanation of much that would otherwise be obscure in modern usage. It is believed that the study of the growth of English should be postponed until the structure of the language in its present condition has first been considered.

In the preparation of the text the standard authorities have been examined at every step, and while it is hardly necessary to give a complete list of the writers whose works have been consulted, the names of Mason, Nesfield, West, Jespersen, Emerson, and Greenough and Kittredge ought to be mentioned with due appreciation.

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AN INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

PART ONE : GRAMMAR AS AN ART

CHAPTER I

THE SENTENCE IN OUTLINE

1. The Sentence.

In studying Grammar it is proper to begin with the Sentence. All our speech whether spoken or written consists of sentences. A sentence is a complete *whole*, and the elements of which a sentence is composed are called *parts* of speech.

The following are sentences :

The sky is bright.

These apples are sweet.

The girls sang songs.

When we think of something we wish to say we arrange our words in the form of a sentence. In each of these cases there was an idea or thought or opinion or judgment in the mind, and then the words were put together and uttered in a certain form.

Sentences, then, are used to tell what one knows, or thinks. A group of words arranged in such a way that something is said about something is called a sentence.

The term *sentence* is often used to denote a portion of the printed or written words on a page between two

periods, but it very often happens that what appears to be one sentence is really composed of a number, and may easily be broken up into several distinct sentences.

“Education was spread abroad, railways and canals were built, telegraph and steamship lines were established, common roads began to enlase the wilderness with their civilizing network.”

There are four distinct sentences in the above : (1) Education was spread abroad. (2) Railways and canals were built. (3) Telegraph and steamship lines were established. (4) Common roads began to enlase the wilderness with their civilizing network.

Examine the following passages. How many sentences are there in each? Write them out separately :

“The waves are gentle, and the sky is clear, and the breeze is tender and low ; for in these days no storms ruffle the pleasant summer sea.”

“Fifteen years were passed and gone, and the babe was now grown to be a tall lad and a sailor, and went many voyages after merchandise to the islands around.”

“His senses were overpowered, his eyes swam in his head, his head gradually declined, and he fell into a deep sleep.”

2. Subject and Predicate.

A sentence makes complete sense. By this is meant that when we have thought of something we wish to say, and have arranged our words in the form of a sentence, the sense or meaning of what is in our mind is completely set forth. Unless our words take the form of a sentence we do not really say anything.

There must be in every sentence two principal members. It is one thing to mention a horse, or a tree, or the St. Lawrence River; it is another thing to say something about a horse, or about a tree, or about the St. Lawrence River. To make a sentence we must do more than merely mention something. We must think about it, and express that thought.

There are, then, two parts or members in every sentence. There is something mentioned, and something said about it. Thus, in the sentence "The horse has broken his halter" there is something mentioned or spoken of, namely *the horse*; and something said about the horse, namely, that he *has broken his halter*. The sentence "The tree is covered with leaves" not only mentions something, *the tree*, but also gives us some information, says something about it that the speaker believes to be true, namely, that it *is covered with leaves*.

Divide the following sentences into two parts. Look first for what is mentioned and then for what is said of it:

The red roses are beautiful.

Mary was Queen of Scotland.

He made many voyages after merchandise.

Drops of dew descend from Heaven.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.

The shortening winter day is near a close.

The two principal parts or members which compose a sentence are called the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE. That which denotes what we speak about is called the Subject. That which is said about that of which we speak is called the Predicate.

Usually there is very little difficulty in dividing a sentence into subject and predicate. In the sentence "John likes oranges" the word *John* denotes what we are speaking about, and is called the Subject. Observe that the sentence does not say anything about *oranges*. The sentence "James likes apples" gives us information about *James*, but not about *apples*. The sentence "You have a knife" says something about *you*, not about *a knife*.

The principal members of a sentence usually appear in the order already indicated, first the subject and then the predicate. Occasionally, however, this order is inverted. *Point out the subject in each of the following sentences :*

For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn.

Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield.

Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.

Therefore am I still a lover of the meadows and the
woods and mountains.

The lost bride of Netherby ne'er did they see.

In Xanadu did Kubla Khan

A stately pleasure dome decree.

There lay the steed with his nostril all wide.

Fast, fast, the gallants ride in some safe nook to hide
Their coward heads.

CHAPTER II

OUTLINE OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

3. The Parts of Speech.

The sentence is a complete whole made up of two principal members, the subject and the predicate. There must, therefore, be at least two words in every sentence that can be constructed, and two principal functions for words to perform. "Flowers bloom." "Dogs bark." "Mary sang." "Stars twinkle." In these sentences the words *flowers*, *dogs*, *Mary*, *stars*, all serve the same purpose. Their function or use is to NAME objects about which we wish to say something. So also with the words *bloom*, *bark*, *sang*, *twinkle*. These words have their own special work to do. They all perform the same function, namely, that of TELLING us something about *flowers*, *dogs*, *Mary*, and *stars*, respectively. These are the two principal functions of words in sentences.

There are other functions to be considered besides the two principal ones. On the basis of function words may be divided into seven classes, called PARTS OF SPEECH.

They are the NOUN, the VERB, the PRONOUN, the ADJECTIVE, the ADVERB, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION.

The functions of the two principal parts of speech have already been mentioned. A NOUN is a word used as a name for something, as *flower*, *Mary*. A VERB is a word which tells something about some person or thing, as "Flowers *bloom*"; "Mary *sings*."

The use of the PRONOUN is best understood by examining a passage from which all pronouns are excluded.

“Enraged and mortified, the gentleman soon returned to the gentleman’s mansion, and there, in the homage of the gentleman’s tenants and the conversation of gentleman’s boon companions found consolation for the vexations and humiliations the gentleman had undergone.” “If the labourers complained that the labourers could not live on such a pittance the labourers were told that the labourers were free to take the pittance or leave the pittance.”

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun, as “He returned to his home.” “I know him well.” “They might take it or leave it.”

ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS are qualifying words.

AN ADJECTIVE is a word used with a noun to modify or limit the extent of its application. The word *man* applies to a great number of individuals. We may use such a word as *white* to modify or limit the application of the term *man*. The expression *white man* applies to a smaller number of individuals than the term *man*. The word *white* is an Adjective.

AN ADVERB is a word which adds to the meaning and modifies the application of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, as “He writes *well*.” “He is a *very* careful workman.” “She sings *very* sweetly.”

PREPOSITIONS and CONJUNCTIONS are connecting words.

A PREPOSITION is a word which is used with a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence. “The soldiers rode *through* the town.”

"The river comes *from* the mountains." "The goods *of* the merchant were cheap *at* the price."

A CONJUNCTION is a word used to join sentences, or words which have a common relation to some other word, as "Speech is silver, *but* silence is golden." "He rode all unarmed *and* he rode all alone." "We eat bread *and* water." "A proud *though* childlike form."

INTERJECTIONS express emotion, delight, sorrow, surprise, or contempt, but have no grammatical relation to other words: "Hurrah!" "Oh!" "Alas!" "Pshaw!"

4. Double Parts of Speech.

The class to which a word belongs is determined by its use in the sentence. Sometimes a word is put to one use and sometimes to another. The following sentences illustrate this:

"The farmer *ploughs* the fields."

"The *ploughs* are made of steel."

"Here is a *secret* passage."

"The *secret* is safe with him."

"We arrived *early*."

"The *early* morning is the time for study."

"A storm came *on*."

"The rain falls *on* the roof."

Ploughs is here used as a verb in one sentence and as a noun in another. *Secret* is an adjective in one case and a noun in another. *Early* is used first as an adverb, and second as an adjective. *On* is now an adverb and again a preposition.

The same word, then, may perform different functions in different sentences or in different parts of the same sentence.

Again, there are words which may be used to combine two functions at once.

“The cavalry *charging* with immense spirit broke the ranks of the enemy.”

Charging is an adjective because it qualifies the noun *cavalry*, and a verb because it is a form of the verb *charge* and describes an action. As *charging* combines the form of a verb and the function of an adjective it is a *verbal adjective*, and is called a PARTICIPLE because it partakes of the nature of both.

“*Walking* rapidly tires me.”

Walking, the subject of the sentence, is a noun. It is also a verb-form. It expresses action, and is part of the verb *walk*.

Walking is here a GERUND. The Gerund combines the functions of a noun and a verb.

“*To err* is human.”

To err, another verb-form, is here used as a noun. It (a) describes an action, and (b) is subject of the sentence.

To err is an INFINITIVE. The Infinitive combines the functions of a noun and a verb.

“By this time the heart of Jeffreys had been hardened to that temper *which* tyrants require in their worst implements.”

Which is a pronoun standing for the noun *temper*, and at the same time joins two statements together.

Which is here a CONJUNCTIVE or RELATIVE PRONOUN.

The Participle, the Gerund, the Infinitive, and the Conjunctive Pronoun are DOUBLE PARTS OF SPEECH.

5. Notional and Relational Words.

Words are also divisible into NOTIONAL WORDS and RELATIONAL WORDS. This is a distinction of signification or meaning.

A NOTIONAL word has a meaning of its own. *Desk, green, run*, are examples. Notional words present to the mind a distinct conception of a thing, an attribute of a thing, or an action.

A RELATIONAL word derives its meaning from its relation to some other word.

He, in, and thus, are relational. They are used to indicate the relation of things to each other.

Almost all nouns and verbs are notional. Adjectives expressing quality, and adverbs such as *foolishly, wrongly, wisely, brightly*, derived from qualitative adjectives, and suggesting qualities, are notional.

The verb *is* in "John is tall" is relational. Pronouns such as *thou* and *he* bring a person before the mind by indicating his relation to *me*. *His, your, their*, etc., are also relational. Adjectives expressing quantity and such adverbs as *now, where, there, whence, when*, are relational. Prepositions and conjunctions are only relational, the former with respect to things, the latter with respect to thoughts. Thus: "The house on the hill across the river was burned." In this sentence the words *on* and *across* clearly show relation between things. Whereas in the

sentences "He will go if he can," "I will go to bed early because I am sleepy," "Speech is silver but silence is golden," the words *if*, *because*, and *but*, show relation between two complete thoughts in each case.

EXERCISES

1. *Form sentences to show that the following words may be used as different Parts of Speech:* anchor, spy, prey, deck, back, paper, level, fast, off, lost, before.

2. *Make sentences in which the following words are used (a) as nouns, (b) as verbs:* fish, foam, pity, frame, whip, wave, sole, stamp, blame, winter.

3. *Make sentences in which the following words are used (a) as nouns, (b) as adjectives:* Silver, savage, young, cruel, bold, gold, leather.

4. *Use each of the following words in a sentence (a) as an adverb, (b) as an adjective:* Most, first, last, better, right, hard, near, only, ill.

5. *What Parts of Speech are the italicised words in the following:* *Ill* fares the land to hastening *ills* a prey, where wealth accumulates and men decay. This is a *home* bound ship. You are a regular *home* bird. Don't touch *that* paper. I saw *that* all was over. The *after* effects were serious. I missed him *after* the performance. He went first and I came *after*.

CHAPTER III

RULES OF GRAMMAR

6. Verb and Subject.

The principal members of a sentence are the subject and the predicate. The former is very often a noun, and the latter is a verb, or contains a verb. "Horses neigh." In this short sentence *Horses*, the subject, is a noun, and the predicate is a verb. In the sentence "The cold north wind blows drearily across the snow," the noun *wind* is the chief word in the subject, and the verb *blows* is the chief word in the predicate.

As the subject names the thing the sentence is about and the predicate tells something about that thing it is natural that there should be agreement between the subject and the verb in respect of those points which they have in common.

NUMBER is one of the points referred to.

There are two numbers, the SINGULAR and the PLURAL.

The SINGULAR NUMBER of a noun is the form used when one of the things denoted by the noun is spoken of, as *boy, man, child, box, mouse*.

The PLURAL NUMBER of a noun is that form which is used when we speak of more than one of the things which the noun stands for, as *boys, men, children, boxes, mice*.

There are also two numbers in *Verbs*, the SINGULAR and the PLURAL. The SINGULAR NUMBER of a Verb is the form which is used when the subject of the verb is

singular. The PLURAL NUMBER of a verb is the form which is used when the subject is plural.

The *boy is* at school.

The *boys are* at school.

The *girl was* at the window.

The *girls were* at the window.

The *man has* a rifle.

The *men have* rifles.

The *machine works* well.

The *machines work* well.

Is, was, has, works are singular. *Are, were, have, work* are plural.

RULE I.—A VERB AGREES WITH ITS SUBJECT IN NUMBER.

The subject of a sentence is often a Pronoun, and the rule applies to pronouns as well as to Nouns.

Correct or justify the following sentences, giving reasons :

Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him.

The fleet are under orders to sail.

The centre of each compartment are ornamented with a star.

The posture of your blows are yet unknown.

Our own conscience and not other men's opinions constitute our responsibility.

Some of the men has rifles.

Each of the girls have a white rose.

He don't want to go.

A ship carrying two hundred passengers were lost.

Neither of these men were patriots at heart.

7. Pronoun and Antecedent.

A Pronoun is a word used instead of a Noun. It is natural that there should be agreement between a pronoun and the word for which it stands. The word to which a pronoun refers is called its Antecedent.

RULE II.—A PRONOUN AGREES WITH ITS ANTECEDENT IN
NUMBER.

We cannot say "Every man must do *their* duty," because *man* is singular and *their* is plural. "If a customer should come in tell them that the clerk is busy" is wrong for the same reason. *Them* is plural, and its antecedent *customer* is singular.

Correct or justify the following sentences, giving your reason in each case :

The army made their retreat.

Each boy in their turn stood up.

Any one wanting information should send in their name.

Not one of the girls had finished her exercise.

A nation has no right to violate the treaties they have made.

More than one emperor prided himself on his skill as a swordsman.

The crowd showed its anger by loud shouts.

Neither John nor James had a word to say for themselves.

8. The Pronoun as Subject.

"John struck the table," "Mary sang a song," "The hunter killed a bear," "The father will find his child" are called ACTIVE FORMS.

"The table was struck by John," "A song was sung by Mary," "A bear was killed by the hunter," "The child will be found by his father" are called PASSIVE FORMS.

"Wellington routed the enemy" is an ACTIVE form. The subject *Wellington* represents the doer of the action.

"The enemy was routed by Wellington ' is a PASSIVE form. The subject *enemy* represents the receiver of the action.

When the subject of the verb represents the doer of the action, the verb is in the active form. When the subject of the verb is the name of the receiver of the action, the verb is in the passive form.

In sentences in the active form the word which stands for the receiver of the action is called the OBJECT of the verb.

Point out the object of the verb in the following sentences :

"John took the horse to the stable." "The porter will unlock the door." "The girls carry flowers in their hands." "Britannia needs no bulwarks."

A Pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is said to be in the NOMINATIVE CASE.

"*I* am ready." "*He* lifted the burden." "*They* have come."

When the object of a verb is a Pronoun, the Pronoun is said to be in the OBJECTIVE CASE.

"James sent *him* away." "The cat will eat *them*."
"The train carried *us* rapidly homeward."

The following tables show the Nominative and Objective forms of the Personal Pronouns as they are called.

FIRST PERSONAL PRONOUN

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	I.	We.
Possessive	My, Mine.	Our, Ours.
Objective	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSONAL PRONOUN

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	Thou.	You, Ye.
Possessive	Thy, Thine.	You.
Objective	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSONAL PRONOUN

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	He, She, It.	They.
Possessive	His, Her, Its.	Their, Theirs.
Objective	Him, Her, It.	Them.

They are called Personal Pronouns because they refer respectively to the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person spoken of. The significance of the term Possessive as applied to such words as *my, your, his, our, their*, etc., is quite obvious.

RULE III.—A PRONOUN WHEN USED AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB MUST TAKE THE NOMINATIVE FORM.

Correct or justify the following, giving your reason in each case :

You and me can sit together.

The Smiths and us are cousins.

This rule applies also in those cases where the verb is understood.

Make necessary corrections in the following :

John can run faster than him.

You are not as industrious as her.

You attend school more regularly than them.

9. The Pronoun as Object.

RULE IV.—A PRONOUN WHEN USED AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB MUST TAKE THE OBJECTIVE FORM.

In the sentence "The master told *him* and *me* all about it," *him* and *me* are objects of the verb *told*, and are correctly used, being in the Objective case.

Correct or justify the following, and give reasons in each case:

The man showed Tom and I where to go.

They that seek wisdom time will reward.

He and they we know quite well.

He gave us girls a holiday.

A group of words composed of a Preposition and a Noun (or a Preposition and a Pronoun) is called a PHRASE.

"The bird flew *over his head*." "The letter was written *to his brother*." "*At the time* the Captain was standing *on the main deck*." "He ran *to me*." "The air *above us* and *around us*."

A Pronoun that goes with a preposition in this way always takes the Objective form.

RULE IV may therefore be extended a little so as to include the use of Pronouns in Phrases.

RULE IV.—A PRONOUN MUST TAKE THE OBJECTIVE FORM WHEN USED EITHER AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB OR WITH A PREPOSITION IN A PHRASE.

Correct or justify the following:

He came with John and I.

Between you and me there is a difference of opinion.

This work is for you men not for we girls.

Mary can go with you and he.

10. The Verb "be."

Verbs which express action directed towards some specified person or thing are called TRANSITIVE VERBS.

Verbs which do not express action directed towards some person or thing are called INTRANSITIVE.

Point out the Intransitive Verbs in the following :

"He raised his hand." "John struck the ball." "The people rejoice." "Mary wrote a letter." "We dwell in safety." "They met yesterday." "The weather is fine." "The horses are ready."

One of the most important of the Intransitive verbs is "be." It has many forms, *is, was, are, were, will be, shall be*, and others.

The forms *I am, thou art, he is, we are, you are, they are, I was, I shall be, you have been*, etc. do not by themselves make a complete statement. To complete the sense they must be followed by some other word. This word may be a noun, or a pronoun, or an adjective, or a verb. A Noun or Pronoun following an Intransitive verb to complete the sense is called a Complement.

"I am he." "Thou art the man." "Who are they?"

When the complement is a Pronoun it must take the Nominative form. It would be incorrect to say "I am him;" "Who are them?" "It was her."

RULE V.—THE VERB "BE" TAKES THE SAME CASE AFTER IT AS BEFORE IT.

11. Past Participle and Auxiliary.

A Participle as we have already seen is an Adjective derived from a verb.

Observe the italicised words in the following :

Dashing forward, the horseman soon reached the spot.

The lads *shouting* with glee ran to the water side.

The soldier *injured* by the blow dropped his rifle.

A house *built* by the earliest settler still remained.

When we wish to describe an action as incomplete and as going on at the present time we use a Present Participle. *Dashing* and *shouting* are Present Participles and are formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb.

Injured and *built* are called Past Participles. They refer to past time.

There are a great many forms of the Verb. The Present tense, the Past tense, and the Past Participle are the principal parts. Thus we have *drink, drank, drunk* ; *sing, sang, sung* ; *love, loved, loved* ; *bring, brought, brought* ; *see, saw, seen* ; and so on.

It is incorrect to use a past participle by itself as predicate. Such expressions as "I seen it," "He drunk the water," "The man done his work" are wrong.

RULE VI.—THE PAST PARTICIPLE WHEN USED IN FORMING THE PREDICATE OF A SENTENCE IS ALWAYS ACCOMPANIED BY AN AUXILIARY (BE OR HAVE).

Correct the following :

Philosophers have often mistook the source of true happiness.

The tired man laid down to rest.

This toast was drank in silence.

The lady had sang many beautiful songs.

EXERCISES

Correct or justify the following, giving reasons :

Every man and boy showed their joy by clapping their hands.

Let each esteem other better than themselves.

He was one of the wisest men that has ever lived.

He is not one of those who interferes in matters that do not concern him.

Who do you think I met this morning?

He is a man whom I think deserves encouragement.

Severe the doom that length of days impose.

The very thought of my revenges that way recoil upon myself.

Young Ferdinand whom they suppose is drowned.

Neither John nor Henry were at church.

The peasantry wears blouses.

Men are put in the plural because they are many.

Nobody in their senses would have done that.

Whom do you think called on me this morning?

Such a man as him would never say that.

If I were him there would be no quarrel.

It may assist the reader to place things before them in chronological order.

My lawyer is a man whom I know is trustworthy.

The master has told every boy to do their work and he would punish whoever he saw idle.

It is one of the most valuable books that has appeared in any language.

PART TWO : GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE

A—THE SENTENCE

CHAPTER IV

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

12. Form and Meaning.

Grammar deals with the forms of speech. The distinction between matter and form in connection with objects about us is one that everyone is familiar with. All the houses on the street may be of the same material and all different in form. Again, there may be several houses built on precisely the same plan but of different material, wood, brick, stone, and what not. Cubes of stone, of metal, of ice, of wood, of clay, of marble, resemble each other in *form*, and differ in *matter*.

The same distinction between form and matter is commonly made in regard to speech and language. Thus we say of the contents of a book that it contains very interesting matter, or very valuable matter, or new matter, or contentious matter, and that is put together in good form, or in attractive form, or in poor form. So, of an address or discourse, we speak of the excellence or badness of the subject matter, and also of the manner or form in which the ideas were presented. "The speech," we say, "was excellent both in matter and in form." Of one whose language is awkward or unusual it is sometimes said, "It is just his *way*; he *means* well."

The matter or meaning of what we speak or write is one thing; the form it takes is a different thing; and the

forms of speech are what we are chiefly concerned with in the study of grammar.

Observe the similarity of FORM in the following :

A tall man ; a bright light ; a sad story ; a red flag ; a cold day ; a pretty flower.

Observe the similarity of meaning in the following :

“John broke the window.” “The window was broken by John.”

“The king’s son.” “The son of the king.”

“An August morning.” “A morning in August.”

“An ocean voyage.” “A voyage on the ocean.”

13. Sentence and Phrase.

It will be convenient in beginning the analytic study of the sentence to distinguish that form of speech from any other that might be confused with it.

In what respect does the expression “the white horse” differ from the expression “the horse is white?”

Is there any difference in the pictures which come before the mind as the words are uttered?

As far as these two expressions are concerned there seems to be no warrant for the slightest difference in any of the actual details of our mental pictures as we compare them in imagination. On reflection, however, we notice that a certain prominence is given in the second case to the feature of whiteness that is not given to that feature in the former. There is no difference in the degree or the extent of the whiteness in either case. But the fact is more prominent and is intended to be more prominent when the words are “The horse is white.”

The prominence given to this feature in the form of words used is due to the vividness of the idea in the mind of the speaker. In "the white horse" the colour of the animal is taken for granted without special notice. In the other case the mind of the speaker is occupied with this feature, which is now so prominent, clear, and real as to put everything else into the shade for the moment. The attitude of mind is best described by the word *belief*. The speaker believes a certain thing to be true, and the form in which his words appear tells us so, and also makes a claim upon our belief.

The words "The horse is white" ask us to believe something about the horse. The words "the white horse" make no claim whatever upon our belief. When we hear them uttered, we are apt to ask, "Well, what about the white horse?"

This is the test we employ to distinguish the form of speech known as a sentence from other forms.

EXERCISES

Examine the following forms and point out the sentences :

1. A new political world, healthier, more really national, but less picturesque, less wrapt in mystery and splendour.
2. The increase of the number of free labourers by a commutation of labour services by money payments.
3. His life was orderly and methodical, sparing of diet and self-indulgence.

4. On either side the river lie long fields of barley and of rye.

5. Here on this beach a hundred years ago,
 Three children of three houses, Annie Lee,
 The prettiest little damsel in the port,
 And Philip Ray, the miller's only son,
 And Enoch Arden, a rough sailor lad
 Made orphan by a winter shipwreck.

6. The great and decisive battle of Bannockburn in Hume's opinion the greatest overthrow suffered by the English since the time of William the Conqueror.

7. The Ambassadors after congratulating Henry on his late victory and communicating to him in the most cordial manner, as to an intimate friend, some successes of their master against Maximilian, came, in the progress of their discourse, to mention the late transactions in Brittany.

8. An instance, almost singular, of a man placed in a high station and possessed of talents for great affairs and yet governed by avarice as a ruling passion rather than ambition.

9. A grant of the highest trading privileges in her American dominions to a commercial company established by the emperor at Ostend in defiance of the Treaty of Westphalia.

10. The letters of Junius though rancorous and unscrupulous in tone gave a new power to the literature of the press by their clearness and terseness of statement, the finish of their style, and the terrible vigour of their invective.

11. Oft on a plat of rising ground
 I hear the far-off curfew sound
 Over some wide-watered shore
 Swinging slow with sullen roar,

12. To walk the studious cloister's pale
And love the high embowéd roof,
With antique pillars massy proof,
And storied windows richly dight,
Casting a dim religious light.

13. One alone,
The redbreast, sacred to the household gods,
Wisely regardful of the embroiling sky
In joyless fields and thorny thickets leaves
His shivering mates.

14. Their name, their years, spelt by th' unlettered muse,
The place of fame and elegy supply.

15. She, wretched matron, forced in age, for bread,
To strip the brook with mantling cresses spread,
To pick her wintry faggot from the thorn,
To seek her nightly shed, and weep till morn.

16. At the time of the Restoration extreme ignorance and frivolity were thought less unbecoming in a lady than the least tincture of pedantry.

17. The most splendid victories recorded in the history of the middle ages were gained at this time, against great odds, by the English armies.

18. To display his magnificence, not in huge piles of food and hogsheds of strong drink, but in large and stately edifices, rich armour, gallant horses, choice falcons, well-ordered tournaments, banquets, delicate rather than abundant, and wines remarkable for their exquisite flavour than for their intoxicating power.

19. The gentle lark weary of rest from his moist cabinet mounts up on high.

20. Coming down to the breakfast-room earlier than usual and saluting everybody there with the utmost cordiality, a tall, somewhat good-looking elderly lady wearing her silver-white hair in old-fashioned curls.

14. Classification of Sentences.

Questions, commands, and exclamations are usually included along with statements under the general head of sentences. The definition of a sentence as the complete expression of a thought in words is broad enough to cover these varieties.

The Exclamatory sentence differs from the Declarative very slightly. "What a fine day it is!" and "It is a fine day," both fall under the narrower definition which states that a sentence is the expression in words of a judgment. The element which distinguishes the exclamatory sentence is that of feeling or emotion. In both cases the speaker expresses his belief that so and so is true, and makes a claim on our belief.

The Imperative sentence has will behind it as well as thought or judgment. The difference in the mental attitude which gives rise to this type and that involved in the others is a real difference. Nevertheless, in practice, commands frequently assume the declarative form. "The regiment will advance" is quite as effective as a form of command as the regular form of imperative sentence. The meaning of "Come to me" is practically equivalent to "You will come to me."

In some instances it is easy enough to see that the Interrogative sentence is the expression of a judgment, and hence indicates belief; in other cases it is not so easy.

The interrogative sentence "Are you going to travel by rail or by boat?" plainly indicates that the speaker believes that you are going to travel one way or the other. In many cases the alternative or disjunctive element is plainly evident. In others the form of the question gives us no clue as to the extent and definiteness of the speaker's knowledge.

The Figurative or Rhetorical Interrogative is really Declarative: "Hath not a Jew eyes?" "Who can be wise, amaz'd, temperate, and furious, loyal, and neutral in a moment?"

The Declarative sentence or assertion is a complete and definite expression of a judgment. The Exclamatory sentence is the form in which judgments with an element of feeling are expressed. The Imperative form is used in reference to an imagined event which the speaker commands some one to bring to pass. The Interrogative is the expression of a judgment lacking in definiteness in some particular and seeking that element.

EXERCISES

Write out the sentences in the following passages, and classify them:

1. Drink to me only with thine eyes,
 And I will pledge with mine,
Or leave a kiss within the cup
 And I'll not ask for wine.
2. Blow, blow, thou winter wind!
 Thou are not so unkind
 As man's ingratitude;
 Thy tooth is not so keen,
 Because thou art not seen
 Although thy breath be rude.

3. Go, Soul, the body's guest
 Upon a thankless arrant !
Fear not to touch the best ;
 The truth shall be thy warrant ;
Go, since I needs must die
And give the world the lie.
4. Now let this wilfu' grief be done
 And dry that cheek so pale ;
Young Frank is chief of Erington
 And lord of Langley-dale.
5. When can their glory fade ?
O the wild charge they made !
 All the world wondered.
Honour the charge they made
Honour the Light Brigade,
 Noble six hundred !
-

CHAPTER V

THE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

15. Subject and Predicate.

Separate each of the following sentences into subject and predicate :

Up springs the lark. Sweet was the sound at close of day. Under a spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands. After ages will record his good deeds. After many years of suffering he recovered his health. In all her movements there is grace and dignity. Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke. Twice have I sought Clan Alpine's glen in peace. Then shook the hills with thunder riven. At the first glimpse of dawn we awoke. On pillars rests its roof. Eastward was built a gate of marble white. Around thee and above, Deep is the air, and dark, substantial, black, An ebon mass. A damsel with a dulcimer In a vision once I saw. Knowledge to their eyes her ample page, Rich with the spoils of time did ne'er unroll. Their name, their years, spelt by th' unlettered muse, The place of fame and elegy supply. From the golden dream of a new age, wrought peaceably and purely by the slow progress of intelligence, the growth of letters, the development of human virtue he turned away with horror. To a practical temper such as this the speculative reforms of the convention were distasteful. Then lies him down the lubber fiend. Towered cities please us then, And the busy hum of men. On the level brine Sleek Panope with all her sisters played. Their moans the vales redoubled to the hills. His ordinary rate of speech in loftiness of sound was rich. Some to

conceit alone their taste confine. Different styles with different subjects sort, as several garbs with country, town, and court. Some by old words to fame have made pretense. The hare though timorous of heart, and hard beset by death in various forms, dark snares, and dogs and more un pitying men, the garden seeks, urged on by fearless want. The path to the accumulation of new capital is thrift. The only definite attempt yet made to put these theories into practice is the creation of institutions like Hollesley. His not doing so would be his keeping something all to himself. To condense into some four hundred pages a sketch of Canadian history and a description of the Dominion without omitting anything of real importance is no small achievement. Once embarked on his admiring search for simplicity he emphasized the virtues of simplicity out of all reason. The solemn peaks but to the stars are known, But to the stars, and the cold lunar beams. Trainings of men and arming them in several places are things of defence and no danger. To prevent the ladies leaving us I generally ordered the tables to be removed. It is shameful for such waste to be allowed. Oft before his infant eyes would run such forms as glitter in the muse's ray with orient hues un borrowed of the sun.

16. Complete and Simple Subject and Predicate.

We have already seen that the Subject of a sentence is often a Noun and sometimes a Pronoun, and that the Predicate is a Verb or contains a verb. In fact many sentences contain only two words, a Noun and a Verb, or a Pronoun and a Verb. "Time flies;" "He walked." Further, we may take a long sentence and omit a great

many words without destroying the sense although the omissions may greatly modify the meaning. "Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight." If we omit *the* and *glimmering* from the subject, and *now*, *on the sight* from the predicate, the remaining words *landscape fades*, still make sense; but if we drop out *landscape* or *fades*, the remainder does not tell us anything and therefore no longer makes a sentence.

We distinguish between the complete subject and the simple subject and between the complete predicate and the simple predicate. In the example given *landscape* is the simple subject, and *fades* is the simple predicate.

Divide the following sentences into subject and predicate and point out the simple subjects and simple predicates :

Drops of dew descend from heaven.

Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave.

Those barbarous ages past, succeeded next
The birthday of invention.

So strode he back slow to the wounded king.

Hard by a cottage chimney smokes.

Sunk are their bowers in shapeless ruin all.

Remote from towns he ran his godly race.

Then spake the bride's father, his hand on his sword.

Redder yet that light shall glow on Linden's hills of
stained snow.

In the preceding exercise the simple predicate, that is, the verb, is a single word in every case except the last. The verb in that sentence is *shall glow*. A group of two or more words consisting of a verb with an Auxiliary, *e.g.*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *will*,

would, should, have, did, do is called a VERB-PHRASE. Very often the simple predicate consists of a verb-phrase.

Underline the simple predicate in each of the following :

The picture is admirably drawn.

This severe sentence should be duly executed.

They can exercise power in every direction.

Bribes may be offered to vanity as well as to cupidity.

The first of these establishments had been set up by a turkey merchant.

The coffee house must not be dismissed with a cursory mention.

The poor gentleman had been robbed of all his money.

Willingly would I have banished these recollections from my memory.

Ken's elaborate works have long been forgotten.

A cloak had been thrown over his sacred vestments.

Already might have been observed in him a happy and genial temper.

The funeral would hardly have been accounted worthy of a noble and opulent subject.

This might well have raised scruples in his mind.

False hopes may possibly have been encouraged.

Raleigh had been imprisoned on a charge of treason.

I should have thought it highly dangerous.

You could hardly hope to do better.

The general will be driven back to the hills.

Tom has been riding about most of the morning.

By Saturday the entire building will have been completed.

How many different kinds of Subjects are there in the following sentences :

The paper is smooth.

Charles left penniless by the dissolution of parliament resolved on a policy of peace.

The King landed in Milford Haven with a body of twenty thousand men.

He could not long remain neuter amidst the noise of arms.

Surrey passed the Till with his artillery and vanguard.

Rhodes started at eighteen in Natal with no money and a weakly constitution.

To stop the invasion of rats will prove expensive.

Keeping the ring presupposes a fight and two combatants.

To live quietly is his ambition.

Skating is a pleasant exercise.

To denounce idleness in general seems right and simple enough.

Finding employment in a large city is not easy.

Thou wast not born for death, immortal Bird !

Much have I travel'd in the realms of gold.

Write a brief account of a runaway using (a) a common noun, (b) an abstract noun, (c) a pronoun, (d) an infinitive derived from the verb "walk," "stop," "run," or "drive," and (e) a gerund from any of these words, as subjects of sentences.

17. The Complement.

Certain sentences seem to fall naturally into three parts:

"John is tall." "The water is cold." "The bridge was unsafe." "All the fields are ripe." "He was a man to all the country dear."

The verb "*be*," (*is, was, are, etc.*) does duty here not only as a verb but also a connective since it connects the subject with the significant part of the predicate. The student must not suppose, however, that the verb "*be*" is simply a connecting word joining two distinct and separate things. A sentence is not two things. It is one thing composed of two members which have no use apart from each other.

Point out the subject, the verb, and the complement in each of the following sentences :

Thus shall each day be a jewel strung upon the thread of life.

The old man's words were few.

A little ripe fruit might be suitable for the purpose.

The later teaching of Tolstoy is only a too logical development of his former sentiments and experiences.

His neckcloth is a most magnificent array of colours.

He is the very embodiment of Sir Fopling Flutter.

The proportion is six parts of gravel or sand to one of cement.

To say such a thing is not good form.

The verb "*be*" since it requires a Complement is called a Verb of Incomplete Predication. *The knife is* makes no sense. What is required is some other word or phrase as "*The knife is sharp.*" "*The knife is in my pocket.*"

Other verbs of incomplete predication may be mentioned: *become, seem, appear, grow.*

The words *tall, sour, weary, wealthy, John*, in the sentences: "*He is tall;*" "*This wine tastes sour;*" "*He seemed weary;*" "*They grew wealthy;*" "*He was called John;*" are called *Subjective Complements*. It is clear

that these Complements are connected closely with the Subject in each case.

The Subjective Complement is to be distinguished from the Objective Complement which is closely related to the object of the verb: "He took the man *prisoner*;" "He cut the matter *short*;" "They stained their faces *red*;" "William called his companion a *dolt*;" "The orator held them *spell-bound*;" "They made him *Captain*;" "He made his father *angry*."

18. Modifiers.

Words, phrases, and the other elements of a sentence are classified in grammar on the basis of their sentence function. Thus when we look at the two principal members of the sentence, the subject and the predicate, we see that the function of the subject is to name what the sentence is about, and the function of the predicate is to tell something about the thing named by the subject. In an important sense the predicate modifies the subject. The function of the pronoun is to stand for or refer to a noun. The function of the preposition is to join words. Every part of a sentence, that is to say, has its own work to do, its sentence function.

In the sentence, "A thousand hearts beat happily," the principal words are *hearts* and *beat*. For convenience the other words, *a*, *thousand*, and *happily*, may be called MODIFIERS.

EXERCISES

1. *Classify the modifiers in the following sentences on the basis of sentence function:*

The brave clansmen mustered rapidly. Bright flowers bloom in the spring. In came the fiddler with a music book.

Now the sun had stretched out all the hills. All human things are subject to decay. Ten low words oft creep in one dull line. Upward urged, the valley to a shining mountain swells tipped with a wreath high-curling in the sky. Proud swells the tide with loads of freighted ore. From scenes like these old Scotia's grandeur springs. The axe-shaft, with its brazen clasp, was shivered to the gauntlet grasp. The working of the bill so far has been different from expectation. The first of Lord Rosebery's resolutions was discussed in the House of Lords on Thursday. Apparently the soldiers recently mobilised could not legally be called out again until after a certain period. Prominent among the guests of the evening was one of the chief native rulers of India. The people in Mr. Henry James's novel world belong to a variety of social strata.

2. *Combine each of the following groups into a sentence :*

Churchill was in his twenty-third year. He was sent to join the French forces. He was sent with his regiment. The French forces were then engaged in operations against Holland.

Scotland had withstood the English arms. She had done this courageously. She had done it during many generations. She was now joined to her stronger neighbour. She was joined to England on the most honourable terms.

Anne of Brittany was widow to the predecessor of Louis XII. Louis had preserved the union with that principality. He was a gallant and generous prince. He had preserved the union by espousing Anne.

Traces were perceptible in the face of the country. They were perceptible in the lawless manners of the people. These traces were left by ages of slaughter and pillage. They were distinctly perceptible in the reign of Charles the Second.

On Friday the Brazilian Navy was at Rio Janerio. The mutineers in possession of the Navy sent a message to the President. The message expressed sorrow for the revolt. It stated their willingness to lay down their arms. It stated also their confidence of amnesty and the granting of their demands.

A meagre report of the second examination was preserved. From this report Montrose seems to have adhered to the literal text of his letter. He seems also to have declined to commit himself to any more definite statement.

The grammatical structure of Old English was modified. It was considerably modified toward the end of this period. This was owing to the Danish invasions. This was especially the case in the northeast districts.

3. Divide the following sentences into subject and predicate. Underline the simple predicate in each case. Examine the remaining parts of the predicate and classify them :

Ships are useful. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred. I saw him yesterday. He works with diligence. Cæsar conquered Gaul. Haughtily the trumpets peal. Ships plough the sea. Mary sang sweetly. Mary sang songs. They became cheerful. The flowers grew finely. They grew yellow. The master called Tom. He called Tom a schemer. He looks well to his work. He looks well.

A number of the above examples contain OBJECTS.

4. Write sentences containing :

- (a) A simple subject and simple predicate, (b) simple subject with one attribute, (c) simple predicate with two adverbial modifiers, (d) simple subject with two attributes and simple predicate with an object, (e) a phrase in the predicate, (f) a complement.

CHAPTER VI

RELATION OF ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

19. The Four Kinds of Relation.

The student is now acquainted with the division of the sentence into its two principal parts, SUBJECT and PREDICATE, and also the further division of these parts. He has learned to distinguish the SIMPLE SUBJECT and the SIMPLE PREDICATE from their MODIFIERS. He has learned to identify the COMPLEMENT and to distinguish it from the OBJECT of the verb.

The division of the sentence into its two principal members is the first step in analysis. The relation in which the predicate of a sentence stands to its subject is called the PREDICATIVE RELATION. By distinguishing the simple subject from its modifiers we discover the relation in which an adjective or its equivalent stands to the noun or pronoun, a relation which is called the ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION. In the predicate in like manner we find that the modifiers are in that relation (*a*) in which an adverb or its equivalent stands to the verb, called the ADVERBIAL RELATION; or the relation (*b*) in which a substantive or its equivalent stands towards a transitive verb, called the OBJECTIVE RELATION.

THE PREDICATIVE RELATION

We have seen that the sentence as a whole is the expression of a judgment. The speaker believing something to be true gives expression to this opinion or belief and thus calls upon others to believe it as well. He has thought about the thing, some phase or aspect of

it has come into prominence, and he predicates this feature or element as being true. The predicate thus possesses a certain demonstrative force. In addition to expressing existence, condition, or action, a verb accomplishes its work as predicate by pointing out something.

In a certain class of sentence, called impersonal, such as "It rains," "It is cold," "It was seven in the morning," the subject is but slightly in evidence, and the attention is almost wholly taken up with what is predicated. The relation between subject and predicate here is difficult to define because the subject itself can hardly be identified. What is represented by the word "it" in these cases? No one can say with any definiteness. In other sentences the distinction of subject and predicate corresponds with greater accuracy to (a) an object thought about and (b) some aspect or feature of that object which the speaker desires to point out.

The grammatical connection between these principal members is the same in all forms of sentence whether declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative.

THE ATTRIBUTIVE RELATION

In the simple sentence, the adjective, the participle, the substantive in the "possessive," the noun in apposition, the substantive preceded by a preposition may stand in the attributive relation to any substantive.

"Large houses will be built in that district." *Large* stands in the attributive relation to the substantive *houses*.

"The animal frightened by the torch fled away."
"The children singing merrily sailed swiftly across

the bay." The participles *frightened* and *singing* are attributes of *animal* and *children* respectively.

"Your hat and John's cap are in the hall." "My father's house is of stone." Nouns and pronouns in the possessive perform the work of adjectives.

"John, the baker, lives there." The words *the baker* are employed for the purpose of further designating or describing *John* and are said to be in *apposition* with the word *John*.

"The trees *in the garden*." "A man *of honour*." "Water *for drinking*." Obviously such phrases qualify or limit the substantive to which they are attached.

THE ADVERBIAL RELATION

The use of the simple adverb in a sentence gives us the type example of this relation :

"The children sang *merrily*." "He returned *soon*."

"They are *very* happy."

The adverbial phrase also illustrates this relation :

"He came *in the morning*." "They wait *with patience*."

"The lady advanced *into the room*." "He is fond of *children*."

The italicised words in the following examples stand in the adverbial relation :

"They walked *a mile*." "We returned *another way*."

"We remained *all summer*." "He is just *my age*."

"I don't care *a button* for him." "He lives *a long distance* off." "There was a sermon *two hours* long."

Certain infinitive forms stand in the adverbial relation to the words with which they are connected :

"He strives *to succeed*." "We are anxious *to go*."

Absolute constructions stand in the adverbial relation :

“*The sun having risen*, we set out.” “*John being absent*, nothing could be done.”

THE OBJECTIVE RELATION

The object of a verb is the word or group of words which represents the object of the action described by the verb when it is in the Active form.

The direct object may be denoted by a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive, or a gerund :

“He struck *the table*.” “We admire *him*.” “I love to hear *music*.” “He dislikes *walking*.”

The indirect object denotes that which is indirectly affected by the action spoken of by the verb :

“The lady gave *him* a book.” “The tailor made *the boy* a coat.”

20. Form for Analysis.

Analyse the sentences :

That man talks nonsense continually.

Sometimes a distant sail was the theme of idle conversation.

Aged in form and solitary he soon would have become melancholy.

Encouraged by this incident we tried our fortune once more.

To remain silent has often been found the best possible course.

Drinking was deep and general in those early days.

SUBJECT			PREDICATE		
Attribute	Simple Subject	Simple Predicate	Complement	Object	Modifier
That	man	talks		nonsense	continually
A distant	sail	was	the theme of idle conversation		sometimes
Aged in form solitary	he	would have become	melancholy		soon
Encouraged by this incident	we	tried		our fortune	once more
silent	to remain	has been found	the best possible course		often
	drinking	was	deep and general		in those early days

EXERCISES

On the preceding plan analyse the following sentences :

1. Once in an ancient city a brazen statue of Justice stood in a public square.
2. Just and wonderful are the councils of Providence.
3. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
4. Guided through the gloom by the lighted matches of Dumbarton's regiment, Monmouth's infantry came running fast.
5. In such spectacles originated many tales of terror told over the cider by the Christmas fires.
6. The jury named by a courtly sheriff, readily found a verdict of "guilty."
7. The cave among the rocks was long the home of a family of foxes.

8. Around her, lovers, newly met
 'Mid deathless love's acclaims
 Spoke evermore among themselves
 Their heart-remembered names.
 9. Softly sweet in Lydian measures
 Soon he soothed his soul to pleasures.
 10. The wanting orphans saw with watery eyes
 Their founders' charity in dust laid low.
 11. The first and most obvious secret of Macaulay's place
on popular book-shelves is his genius for narration.
 12. The common run of plain men are as eager as children
for a story.
 13. Gentleness lay more nearly at the spring of behaviour
than in many more ornate and delicate societies.
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CHAPTER VII

COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

21. Modifiers (Structure).

On the basis of *sentence function* modifiers have been divided into two great classes, modifiers of the subject and modifiers of the predicate.

Structure or *form* affords another ground of classification.

Examine the modifiers in the following, and comment upon any difference of structure you notice. The modifiers are italicised :

The fine old trees in the garden stood out against the sky.

The old elms which border the driveway are a joy to the eye.

Honest men are respected everywhere.

Men who are honest are respected.

He lay still. He lay for a long time. He lay where he fell.

There are in the above examples three distinct classes or types of modifiers. One of these is new. The others are familiar. Single word modifiers, such as adverbs and adjectives, go in a class by themselves. Phrases, consisting of several words, often a preposition with a noun or pronoun, form another. The modifiers which are neither single words nor phrases are *which border the driveway*, *who are honest*, and *where he fell*. The first of these is grammatically connected with the noun *elms*; the second with *men*; the third with *lay*. The distinguishing feature of this type is that each one has a subject and a predicate of its own. A Modifier which contains a Subject and a Predicate is called a **CLAUSE**.

EXERCISES

Point out the modifying clauses in the following :

A dog that barks does not always bite. He had left before I arrived. When morning dawns the animals begin to move. The hare gazed at us as we passed. That which chiefly distinguished the army of Cromwell from other armies was the austere morality and the fear of God which pervaded all ranks. The extensive plain which lies below ancient Troy towards the Rhoetean promontory and the tomb of Ajax was first chosen for his capital. We are all poets when we read a poem well. The things Turenne says are full of sagacity and geniality. When I was in India I passed one hot season in the hills. The judge who was a shrewd fellow winked at the manifest iniquity of the decision ; and when the court was dismissed went privily, and bought up all the pigs that could be had for love or money.

22. The Complex Sentence.

We now come naturally to the distinction between Simple and Complex sentences. With the exception of the last few examples the sentences we have been dealing with have been simple sentences. By a Simple Sentence is meant one that contains a single statement, question, command, or exclamation. A COMPLEX SENTENCE always contains a CLAUSE in addition to the main or principal or containing sentence.

In a Complex Sentence the contained Clause is said to be subordinate to or dependent on the main or containing sentence. To be more exact it is dependent upon some word in the main sentence. The main or principal sentence is often called a clause, but to distinguish it from the subordinate clause it is spoken of as the MAIN CLAUSE or the PRINCIPAL CLAUSE.

In analysing complex sentences it will be found convenient to indicate the relation between the principal and the subordinate clauses by the use of Capital and small letters. Use a Capital letter to indicate a Principal clause, and a small letter to mark a subordinate one.

Analyse the following complex sentences :

1. Ice that is formed in March soon disappears.
 2. I wish you would attend to your work.
 3. The slow stream through which we moved was full of reeds.
 4. He spoke loud that I might hear him.
 5. That he is friendly is proved by his actions.
1. *A.* Ice soon disappears
 a. that is formed in March.
 2. *A.* I wish
 a. you would attend to your work.
 3. *A.* The slow stream was full of weeds
 a. through which we passed.
 4. *A.* He spoke loud
 a. (that) I might hear him.
 5. *A.* Clause *a* is proved by his actions
 a. (that) he is friendly.

Sentence	Attributes	Subject	Predicate	Compl.	Object	Adverbial Adjuncts
1. <i>A.</i> <i>a.</i>	clause <i>a</i>	ice that	disappears is formed			soon in March
2. <i>A.</i> <i>a.</i>		I you	wish would attend		clause <i>a</i>	to your work
3. <i>A.</i> <i>a.</i>	(1) the (2) slow (3) clause <i>a</i>	stream we	was passed	full of reeds		through which
4. <i>A.</i> <i>a.</i>		He I	spoke might hear		him	(1) loud (2) clause <i>a</i>
5. <i>A.</i> <i>a.</i>		clause <i>a</i> he	is proved is	friendly		by his actions

This analysis shows that there are three kinds of modifying clauses, those which do the work of an adjective, those which do the work of an adverb, and those which do the work of a noun. Clause *a* in 1 qualifies the noun *ice*; clause *a* in 2 is the object of the verb *wish*; clause *a* in 3 qualifies the noun *stream*; clause *a* in 4 modifies the verb *spoke*; clause *a* in 5 is the subject of the verb *is proved*.

23. Clauses.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES are of three kinds: SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES, ADJECTIVE CLAUSES, and ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

First the SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE. In its relation to the rest of the sentence it is the equivalent of a SUBSTANTIVE, and may form (*a*) the subject of the verb in the principal clause, or (*b*) the object of the verb in the principal clause; or (*c*) it may stand in apposition to some other substantive; or (*d*) it may serve the purpose of a Complement; or (*e*) it may be governed by a preposition.

(*a*) A Substantive clause as subject of the verb in the principal clause :

“ *When I set out is uncertain ;* ” “ *That he should deceive me is unlikely ;* ” “ *How you found out the secret can only be guessed ;* ” “ *Where he spends the evenings will presently be known.* ”

In such forms as “ *It is absurd that he should work so late,* ” the meaning is “ *That he should work so late is absurd.* ” Here the real subject is the clause itself, the word *it* being a temporary or provisional subject.

(*b*) A substantive clause as object of the verb in the principal sentence :

"I know *that he is innocent.*" "He asked me *why I came late.*" "The lady asked the child *if she was hungry.*"

(c) A substantive clause in apposition to some other substantive :

"The fact *that he is the culprit* is apparent." "He stuck to his original story *that he had been at home all evening.*" "We cherish the hope *that he will return.*" "Who can want the thought *how monstrous it was for Malcolm and Donalbain to kill their gracious father.*"

(d) A substantive clause as a Complement :

He is precisely *what he seems* ; My home is *wherever night overtakes me* ; The child's idea was *that he should visit his grandmother.*

(e) A substantive clause as object of a preposition :

"We should have overtaken you but *that the roads were so heavy* ;" "He is doing well except *that he spends more money than ever* ;" "He says nothing but *what is true.*" "I can get along with *what I have.*" "She told a sad tale of *how she had struggled for years.*"

THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE in its relation to the rest of the sentence is equivalent to an ADJECTIVE.

It is simple in construction ; it is usually attached to the noun or pronoun which it qualifies, by means of a relative pronoun (or a relative adverb which is equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition) ; and, like an ordinary adjective, it has usually a DEFINITIVE OR RESTRICTIVE FORCE.

"He *that is idle* shall have poverty enough ;" "Uneasy lies the head *that wears a crown* ;" "The lad handed me the book *which he had found* ;" "Statesmen at her councils met *who knew the seasons* ;" "I do not admire such books *as he writes.*"

Sometimes the relative is omitted :

"I have a mind *presages me such thrift.*" "The story *he told* was remarkable."

By supplying the suppressed antecedent a substantive clause may be treated as an adjective clause :

"*Who steals my purse* steals trash." "He *who steals my purse* steals trash."

"I believe *what you say.*" "I believe that *which you say.*"

"He is precisely *what he seems.*" "He is precisely that *which he seems.*"

In the following cases the relative adverb is equivalent to a relative with a preposition :

"That is the house *where I dwell*" = in which I dwell.

"The country *whence they came* was rough and unfruitful" = from which they came.

"It was the hour *when all was still*" = at which all was still.

"That is the reason *why he left*" = for which he left.

Clauses introduced by relatives are sometimes really coordinate with the principal clause. In such a case the force and meaning of the clause is *continuative* rather than restrictive.

"I gave him some bread *which he ate*" has the force and meaning of "I gave him some bread, *and this* he ate."

"He heard that the crop was ruined *which greatly depressed him*" is practically equivalent to "He heard that the crop was ruined *and this* greatly depressed him."

"He wrote to his father *who replied by next post.*" The force and meaning of this may be expressed by the use of coordinate clauses : "He wrote to his father *and he* replied by next post."

The ADVERBIAL CLAUSE in its relation to the rest of the sentence is equivalent to an ADVERB, and therefore usually modifies a verb, occasionally an adjective, and sometimes an adverb.

Adverbial clauses may be classified according to meaning. Thus we have (a) Adverbial clauses relating to Time.

“Everyone listens *when he speaks* ;” “He never spoke *after he fell* ;” “Come down *ere my child die*.”

(b) Adverbial clauses relating to Place :

“*Whither I go* ye cannot come ;” “He lay *where he fell*.”

(c) Adverbial clauses relating to MANNER AND DEGREE:

“He did *as he was told* ;” “They are better *than we expected*.”

(d) Adverbial clauses relating to CAUSE :

“I obey him *because he is my father* ;” “They were weary *for the work had been heavy*.”

(e) Adverbial clauses relating to PURPOSE AND CONSEQUENCE :

“He died *that we might live*.”

“He was so weak *that he fell*.”

“I will avoid the crowded streets *lest I should be seen*.”

(f) Adverbial clauses relating to CONDITION :

“*If he is at home*, I shall see him.”

“*Though he was there*, I did not notice him.”

“*If he were at home*, I should see him.”

“*Though He slay me*, yet will I trust Him.”

Write out the Principal and Subordinate Clauses in the following; distinguish them by using Capital and small letters; and analyse as above:

1. The sea-coast of Thrace and Bithynia, which languish under the weight of Turkish oppression, still exhibits a rich prospect of vineyards, of gardens, and of plentiful harvests.
2. The crusader felt that the confidence of the Moslem made him ashamed of his own doubts.
3. One thing I particularly noticed in this delightful house was the smell of fish.
4. With all the hurry of an imagination that could not rest in the present she sat in the deepening twilight forming plans of self-humiliation and entire devotedness.
5. When the event of the war was still doubtful the Houses had put the Primate to death.
6. Men were there whose names have become historic.
7. Then came some palsied oak, a cleft in him like a distorted mouth that splits its rim gaping at death.
8. Not by eastern windows only, when daylight comes, comes in the light.
9. Many a holy text around she strews that teach the rustic moralist to die.
10. He'd undertake to prove, by force of argument, a man's no horse.
11. I will go where you go.
12. I hoped that this folly would soon die away.
13. What happened next he knew not.
14. Where he set his stamp has been upon style.
15. The only people whom men cannot pardon are the perfect.
16. No one of the questions which now agitate the nation is a question between rich and poor.
17. I am never merry when I hear sweet music.
18. I love him because he is good.
19. It turned out as I expected.
20. He asked me how old I was.

24. The Compound Sentence.

Every subordinate clause is a constituent part or contained member within a larger whole. This larger whole is a sentence consisting of a main or principal clause and along with it a dependent or subordinate clause (one clause or more). There are also sentences composed of two or more clauses in which the parts stand on an equal footing. In such cases the sentence is said to be COMPOUND. A COMPOUND SENTENCE is one which consists of two or more co-ordinate clauses joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions. Here we have a relation of co-ordination between the constituent clauses instead of a relation of subordination as in the case of the complex sentence. The sentences : "Men may come and men may go, but I go on forever ;" "They toil not, neither do they spin ;" "He is contented, but she is not" are COMPOUND.

In previous exercises we found it convenient to use the Capital *A* to indicate the Principal Clause and the small *a* to mark the Subordinate clause in a Complex Sentence.

In dealing with Compound Sentences the Capitals *A*, *B*, *C*, etc., may be used to mark the Co-ordinate clauses. Take the following Compound sentences :

1. He stay'd not for brake, and he stopp'd not for stone.
2. He is rich, but he is not happy, and he is becoming richer and unhappier every day.

The relation of the clauses may be exhibited thus :

1. *A*. He stay'd not for brake.
B. he stopped not for stone.

2. *A.* He is rich.

B. he is not happy.

C. he is becoming richer and unhappier every day.

If the compound sentence contains in addition to its co-ordinate clauses one or more subordinate clauses, these may be indicated by small letters: those dependent on *A* by *a*; on *B* by *b*; on *C* by *c*, etc.

1. You will laugh when you hear the reason for my absence; and I cannot help laughing myself at your surprise to-morrow when I am missed.

2. I am very glad that you liked her, but when I last saw her she was not very promising.

1. *A.* You will laugh.

a. when you hear the reason for my absence.

B. I cannot help laughing at your surprise to-morrow.

b. when I am missed.

2. *A.* I am very glad.

a. you liked her.

B. She was not very promising.

b. when I last saw her.

25. Miscellaneous Exercises with Compound and Complex Sentences.

When clause has two or more subordinate clauses dependent on it, the relation may be expressed as in the following examples:

1. There are peculiar quavers which are still to be heard in the church and which may be heard half a mile off.

2. I knew that he would come and that he could come early, but I feared that the journey would tire him, and that he would not enjoy himself.

1. *A.* There are peculiar quavers1*a.* which are still to be heard in the church.2*a.* which may be heard half a mile off.2. *A.* I knew1*a.* (that) he would come.2*a.* and that he would come early.*B.* I feared1*b.* (that) the journey would tire him.2*b.* (that) he would not enjoy himself.

Very often a sentence will contain only a subordinate clause dependent upon some word in the main clause, but also another clause or other clauses dependent in turn upon the subordinate clause. In short there are degrees of subordination in clauses which may readily be distinguished in the following manner:

1. You take my house when you do take the prop
That doth sustain my house.

2. A situation like this, in which I am as unknown to the world, as I am ignorant of all that passes in it, in which I have nothing to do but to think, would exactly suit me were my subjects of meditation as agreeable as my leisure is uninterrupted.

1. *A.* You take my house.

1¹. when you do take the prop (an adverbial clause modifying *take* in *A*).

1². that doth sustain my house (adjectival clause modifying *prop* in 1¹).

2. *A.* A situation like this would exactly suit me.

1*a*¹. in which I am as unknown to the world (adjectival clause qualifying *situation* in *A*).

1a². as I am ignorant of all (adverbial clause modifying *unknown* in 1a¹).

a³. that passes in it (adjectival clause modifying *all* in 1a²).

2a¹. in which I have nothing to do but think (adjectival clause modifying *situation* in A).

3a¹. were my subjects of meditation as agreeable (adverbial clause modifying *would suit* in A).

2a². as my leisure is uninterrupted (adverbial clause modifying *agreeable* in 3a¹).

EXERCISES

(a) Write out in full the Main and Subordinate clauses in the following, and show the relation of the clauses according to the plan given above.

1. The evil that men do lives after them.
2. He that fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.
3. Our sport shall be to take what they mistake.
4. The person who told you I said so is mistaken.
5. Each knew that side must conquer he would own
And for him fiercely, as for empire, strove.
6. The dastard crow that to the wood made wing,
And sees the groves no shelter can afford,
With her loud caws her craven kind does bring,
Who, safe in numbers, cuff the noble bird.
7. In my former days of bliss
Her divine skill taught me this,
That from everything I saw
I could some invention draw ;
And raise pleasure to her height
Through the meanest object's sight.

8. When the iron door was closed, then reappeared the tender light of the half-full moon, which vainly strove to trace out the indistinct shapes of the neighbouring mountains.

9. He felt that the little fellow's presence had been a barrier between his guest and himself and that he must now deal with a man who, on his own confession, had committed the one only crime for which Heaven could afford no mercy.

10. He stirred the vast coals, thrust in more wood, and bent forward to gaze into the hollow prison-house of the fire, regardless of the fierce glow that reddened upon his face.

11. This poor fellow had been an attorney in what he called his better days ; but flip, sling, and toddy, and cocktails had caused him to slide from one thing to another till at last he slid into a soap-vat.

12. When a face was thrust into the aperture, glanced round the room, looked at him, and then withdrew again, and the door closed behind it, his fear broke loose from him in a hoarse cry.

13. The leaders on this side may have been unable to accept the terms which were offered by their opponents, because they knew they could not carry their party with them.

14. Now that the election is over we may suppose that the Prime Minister will not be sorry to take advantage of an interval of quiet to consider a situation, which as he must recognize, is one of considerable difficulty.

15. In a little pool behind some houses farther in the village, where another spring rises, the shattered stones of the well, and of the little fretted channel, which was long ago built and traced for it by gentler hands, lie scattered, each from each, under a ragged bank of mortar, and scoria, and bricklayer's refuse, on one side, which the clean water nevertheless chastises to purity.

16. She says you saw her writings about the other day, and she wishes you should know what they are.

17. Bridget is so sparing of her speech on most occasions that when she gets into a rhetorical vein I am careful how I interrupt it.

18. We could never have been what we have been to each other, if we had always had the sufficiency which you now complain of.

19. I walked on a little, buoyed up, as one is on such occasions, with a sweet soothing of self-satisfaction but, before I had got to the end of the bridge, my better feelings returned, and I burst into tears, thinking how ungrateful I had been to my good aunt, to go and give her good gift away to a stranger, that I had never seen before, and who might be a bad man for aught I knew.

20. In this disguise he was brought into the hall, where awaited him the whole number of his school-fellows, whose joint lessons and sports he was thenceforth to share no more.

21. I fear you will laugh when I tell you what I conceive to be the most essential mental quality for a free people whose liberty is to be progressive, permanent, and on a large scale.

22. The farmer was twisting a halter to do what he threatened, when the fox whose tongue had helped him in hard pinches before, thought there could be no harm in trying whether it might not do him one more good turn.

23. I hope your hearts will never get to be so dry and hard that they will not beat responsive to brave and noble deeds, even if they are not exactly prudent.

24. Processions were legal, and they were resolved that the law should be respected and the spirit of disorder repressed.

25. When we look more closely into it, what at first wore the air of dignity and elevation, in truth rather disagreeably resembles the narrow assurance of a man who knows that he has with him the great battalions of public opinion.

26. By the time you'll have made your escape from the Kalmucks, you'll have stayed so long I shall never be able to bring to your mind who Mary was, who will have died about a year before, or who the Holcrofts were.

27. The voice I hear this passing night was heard
In ancient days by emperor and clown :
Perhaps the selfsame song that found a path
Through the sad heart of Ruth when, sick for home,
She stood in tears amid the alien corn ;
The same that ofttimes hath
Charmed magic casements, opening on the foam
Of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn.

28. Turenne was startled by the shout of stern exultation with which his English allies advanced to the combat, and expressed the delight of a true soldier when he learned that it was ever the fashion of Cromwell's pikemen to rejoice greatly when they beheld the enemy.

29. When the army, on its homeward march, reached the town of Carlisle, those who had been unable to follow the expedition came thither in numbers to enquire for the friends they had lost.

30. La Salle's victorious energy bore all before it ; and his best reward is that his name stands forth in history an imperishable monument of heroic constancy.

31. My servant and I, with the help of an Indian who was sober, defended ourselves till morning when they thought proper to let us escape.

32. When Pontiac was sober he made me an apology for his behaviour, and told me it was owing to bad counsel he had got that he had taken me, but that I need not fear being taken in that manner for the future.

33. They fiercely complained that they were interposed as a barrier between the rest of the province and a ferocious enemy, and that they were sacrificed to the safety of men who looked with indifference upon their miseries and lost no opportunity to extenuate and smooth away the cruelty of their destroyers.

34. The man who objects to pay for political purposes of which he disapproves has to give formal notice in writing that he wishes to be exempted. That makes him a marked man, and there is only too much evidence to show the kind of persecution to which he is liable to be subjected.

35. The old law was that when a man was fined, he was to be fined so as his countenance might be safe, taking countenance in the same sense as your countryman does when he says, "if you will come into my house I will show you the best countenance I can," that is, not the best face, but the best entertainment.

36. A foolish schoolmaster, before I was fully fourteen years old, drove me so with fear of beating from all love of learning, as now when I know what difference it is to have learning and to have little or none at all, I feel it my greatest grief, and find it my greatest hurt that ever came to me, that it was my ill chance to light upon so ignorant a schoolmaster.

37. Though some in France, which will needs be gentlemen, whether men will or no, and have more gentleship in their hat than in their head, be at deadly feud with both learning and honesty, yet I believe, if that noble Prince, King Francis the First were alive, they would have neither place in his court, nor pension in his wars, if he had knowledge of them.

38. Look well upon the former life of those few, whether your example be young or old, who without learning have gathered by long experience a little wisdom and some happiness, and when you do consider what mischief they have committed, what dangers they have escaped (and yet twenty to one do perish in the adventure), then think well with yourself whether you would that your own son should come to wisdom and happiness by the way of such experience or no.

39. I leave it to you whether you shall choose to pay him the civility of asking him to dinner while you stay in Cambridge, or in whatever other way you may best like to show your gratitude to my friend.

40. They were big girls, it seems, too old to attend his instructions with the silence necessary ; and however old age, and a long state of beggary seem to have reduced his writing faculties to a state of imbecility, in those days, his language occasionally rose to the bold and figurative, for when he was in despair to stop their chattering, his ordinary phrase was, "Ladies, if you will not hold your peace, not all the powers in heaven can make you."

41. Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.
In every work regard the writer's end,
Since none can compass more than they intend ;
And if the means be just, the conduct true,
Applause, in spite of trivial faults, is due.

42. Where Tully doth set up his sail of eloquence in some broad deep argument carried with full tide and wind of his wit and learning all other may rather stand and look after him than hope to overtake him what course so ever he hold either in fair or foul.

43. Four men only, when the Latin tongue was full ripe, be left unto us, who in that time did flourish, and did leave to posterity the fruit of their wit and learning : Varro, Sallust, Cæsar, and Cicero.

44. Now made Earl of Somerset, the favourite remained at the height of his power for two years more, though he grew so insolent and ill tempered that even James became tired of him.

45. He was the only strong and popular King of the house of Lancaster, and Englishmen trusted him so entirely that he could afford to play the part of a constitutional ruler, since his parliaments always gave him all that he asked for.

46. He was compelled on this occasion to use the services of an interpreter ; for it is remarkable that long as he resided in India, intimately acquainted as he was with Indian politics and with the Indian character, and adored as he was by his Indian soldiery, he never learned to express himself with facility in any Indian language.

47. Clive told him in reply, with characteristic haughtiness that his father was a usurper, that his army was a rabble, and that he would do well to think twice before he sent such poltroons into a breach defended by English soldiers.

48. But when it was also rumoured that the fortune which had enabled its possessor to eclipse the Lord Lieutenant on the race-ground, or to carry the county against the head of a house as old as Domesday Book, had been accumulated by violating public faith, by deposing legitimate princes, by reducing whole provinces to beggary, all the higher and better as well as all the low and evil parts of human nature were stirred against the wretch who had obtained by guilt and dishonour the riches which he now lavished with arrogant and inelegant profusion.

49. Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world and all our woe,
With loss of Eden till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, Heavenly Muse, that on the secret top
Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
That shepherd who first taught the chosen seed
In the beginning how the heavens and earth
Rose out of chaos.

50. If you ask me why I have written thus, and to you especially, to whom there was no need to write thus, I can only reply that having a letter to write and no news to communicate, I picked up the first subject I found, and pursued it, as far as was convenient for my purpose.

(b) *Write out in full the Complex sentences indicated in the following. Supply all necessary connective words :*

1. A. Soft is the strain.

1a. When zephyr gently blows,

2a. the smooth stream in smoother numbers flows.

- B. the hoarse rough verse should like the torrent roar

b. when loud surges lash the sounding shore.

2. A. Chaucer was in the midst of the writing of his
Canterbury Tales and poems.

1a. When the use of English in schools was revised.

2a. into which the romantic spirit is copiously
infused.

3. A. Slang has been called the lazy man's dialect.

B. the constant use of vague and unselected terms for every shade of meaning must gradually reduce one's thoughts to the same ignorant level.

1b. if the sign of cultivation is an enriched vocabulary.

2b. from which most slang proceeds.

4. *A.* There are those words.

*1a*¹. with which we become acquainted in ordinary conversation.

*2a*¹. which we learn from the members of our own family and from our familiar associates.

*3a*¹. which we should know.

*a*². even if we could not read or write.

5. *A.* Our first acquaintance with certain words comes not from our mother's lips or from the talk of our school-master, but from books, lectures, or the more formal conversation of highly educated speakers.

1a. that we read.

2a. that we hear.

3a. who are discussing some popular topic in an appropriately elevated style.

6. *A.* The eastern cavalier seemed to keep cautiously out of the reach of that weapon.

*1a*¹. who remembered the strength and dexterity.

*a*². with which his antagonist had aimed it.

*2a*¹. of which he had so lately felt the force.

*3a*¹. while he showed a purpose of waging a distant warfare of his own.

7. *A.* Under ordinary circumstances he would have spoken to his father.

B. He felt instinctively

*b*¹. this was a matter

*b*². on which Coppy ought to be consulted.

8. A. It appears to us

a^1 . there is no way of disposing of the vast mass of detritus

a^2 . which must have fallen from the walls of the Yosemite since the formation of the valley except by assuming

a^3 . it has gone down to fill the abyss

a^4 . which was opened by the subsidence

a^5 . which our theory supposes to have taken place.

(c) *Construct complex sentences, using the material given below. Supply connectives, and make other slight changes where necessary :*

1. We are eminently adaptive. We have created new conditions. We exist in harmony with them. These conditions are widely different from others. We were originally adapted to these others. All this is true.

2. This exploit was particularly gratifying to the three men. They stood in need of an outfit. This exploit furnished the outfit. They were enabled to make a long desired trip into the virgin East. Miners had not yet appeared in the east.

3. He felt a gleam of pity for a certain man. This man had been endowed in vain with certain faculties. These faculties can make the world a garden of enchantment. This man had never lived. He was now dead.

4. Almost the first act of William was to fulfil his promise to the nobles by distributing among them the unredeemed estates of the English. He had established his power in England. They had aided him in his enterprise. The English had fought at Hastings in defence of their king and country.

5. The Russians and Austrians were nearly ready to invade France from the east. The allied army was assembling in the Southern Netherlands under Wellington. Napoleon resolved to make a rapid move against the allied army hoping to defeat it in time.

6. Arnold puts certain words into the mouth of Ossian as a verdict on the melancholy fate of the Celt. These words were not a speech of Ossian at all. They refer to a Scandinavian race. In that race fate had avenged the crime of murder.

7. We must put aside these popular notions for certain reasons. Their origin is obscure. We have no right to take the grain of truth in them for granted. The grain of truth is generally mingled with a bushel of falsehood.

8. In the portrait he appears to be doing his best to look like a man of genius. We have learned something from his books and from this portrait. Except this we know nothing whatever about him.

B—THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER VIII

SUBSTANTIVES

26. Classification of Nouns.

A noun is a word used as a name for something.

The term *something* requires a few words of explanation.

Ordinarily we are apt to think of a *thing* as visible or tangible, or in some way or other within reach of our senses, but a little reflection shows us that there are immaterial things which we regard as having a real existence. A *thing*, then, may be an object of sense, or an object of thought. Indeed it is usual to speak of mere fictions of the imagination as *things*. No one believes that dragons or centaurs exist in fact, but yet to these and similar imaginary existences we rightly apply the word *thing*. Any thing, material or immaterial, real or imaginary, which is of interest to human beings may receive a name by which to distinguish it from other things, and this name is called in grammar a noun. As the whole number of things in the world of sense, in the world of thought, and in the world of fancy, is very large indeed, the nouns in any language are also very numerous.

Nouns may be classified on the ground of their use.

On this basis they fall naturally into two classes, Common and Proper.

A Common Noun is a name applied to several things in the same sense. *Soldier, horse, city, river.*

A Proper Noun is a word which is used as the name of some particular person, animal, or place. *Wellington, Bucephalus, Montreal, Assiniboine.*

A Common Noun has two uses.

The word *book* points out, or identifies, certain objects. In this use of the word it seems almost as if one were pointing with the finger at the thing. This use of the word is called its *application*.

The other use of the word *book* is to make us think of certain qualities or properties or features which belong to certain objects.

We cannot call a thing by the name *book* unless it possesses certain qualities. Usually we think of a book as having a cover of a definite kind, enclosing a considerable number of pages on which certain words have been printed in such a way that one may read and understand. This is the *meaning* of the word. Of course, a librarian or a manufacturer of books will use the word with great exactness. We may be in doubt in some cases whether a given object is a book or a pamphlet or a magazine, but as a general thing there is no difficulty in *applying* the word. And the same remark may be made in regard to its *meaning*.

A Common Noun is therefore said to be *significant*. It serves not only to denote or point out an object, but also to connote or suggest at the same time all the features or characteristics or attributes common to a number of individuals. The possession of these attributes is what entitles each of the objects to a place in the class indicated by the name.

A Proper Noun is used for the single purpose of distinguishing one individual from others. The name *Copenhagen* is a sort of label which we use for convenience in referring to an individual. It is a name, and nothing more. Like the word *book*, it may be applied to an individual object; but it tells us nothing whatever about the qualities or attributes of that object. By the name *Copenhagen* we distinguish a particular city; but some other name would serve just as well to distinguish that city from others; and *Copenhagen* would serve as well as any other name to apply to a house, a street, a horse, or a sleeping-car. A Proper Noun is a person's or thing's own name. It is true that owing to historical association some names seem more appropriate than others, but speaking broadly a Proper Noun has no meaning. Its use is to identify an individual object. It is *non-significant*.

A Proper Noun is a singular name, in that it is applied to an individual as a mere distinguishing mark. Proper names, however, may be used in the plural. Thus we speak of the *Browns*, the *Georges*, the *Cæsars*, applying the term to individuals bearing the same name. Again we speak of individuals who resemble the one to whom the proper name originally belonged as *the Neros*, *the Howards*, *the Nightingales*, *the Shakespeares*, or of an individual as a mute inglorious *Milton*, a *Hercules*, a *Bayard*. In the former case, where a proper name belongs to several persons and is used in the plural, it is still a proper name. In the latter case, where the name is applied to an individual or to individuals on account of some resemblance to the historical character who bore it, the term becomes significant, and is therefore

no longer a proper noun. It now denotes a class or collection of persons grouped together because of the possession of certain attributes and must be considered as a Common Noun.

Some Common Nouns are used distributively; others collectively. That is, one noun may apply to each member of a group separately; while another may apply to a group taken as a whole. The Common Noun used distributively is called a CLASS NAME; used collectively it is called a COLLECTIVE NOUN.

The word *boy* is a Class Name. It is applicable to every individual member of a class. *Soldier* is a class name for the same reason. *Virtue* is a class name. Every instance of a certain kind of action comes within this class. *Sleep* is a class name. There are many kinds of sleep.

The word *mob* is a Collective Noun. It is applicable to a group taken not as individuals, but as a whole. Such nouns as *regiment*, *congregation*, *crew*, are collective. *Soldiers*, *worshippers*, *sailors* are plurals denoting a number of things taken individually. A Collective Noun is one which in the singular stands for one group of several individual things. The plural of the Collective Noun stands for a number of such groups.

On the basis of the *mode of existence* of the things they represent Class names may be divided into two kinds: CONCRETE, applying to objects that we can see, hear, or touch; and ABSTRACT, applying to qualities, actions, or states. Names of Objects that may be perceived by the senses and have a real and separate

existence of their own, such as *boy, house, pen, horse*, are Concrete. Each of these objects is regarded as possessing certain qualities or properties bound together and forming one undivided whole. When any one of these qualities is separated in thought from the others, and considered by itself, the name by which we thus distinguish it is an abstract noun. That which we denote by an abstract noun has no separate or independent existence in fact, but is only thought of by itself. We can think of actions and states apart from their objects. Thus *virtue, sleep, running, growth, decay* are abstract nouns. *Sculpture, botany, grammar* are names of processes of action and thought, and are therefore abstract nouns.

The use of a word to denote a concrete thing must be distinguished from its use to denote something abstract. *Nobility* is an abstract noun in the sentence: "The nobility of his character gained for him the respect of all his acquaintances." It is concrete in the following: "The nobility can be depended on to take a full share in the government." In the latter case it denotes the whole body of persons of noble family. So with such words as *industry, beauty, youth, painting, nature, vision*, etc. They may be used to indicate a quality, or a state, or a process, or they may stand for that which possesses the quality, or is in the condition or state, or is the result of a process so indicated.

"*Industry* is praiseworthy." "*Beauty* is a joy to the eye." "*Youth* goes by quickly." "*Painting* is one of the fine arts." "The *nature* of the man was amiable." "Excess of work has impaired his *vision*." These nouns are abstract.

"The farming *industry* is prosperous." "A great *beauty* is apt to be arrogant." "The *youth*, who daily farther from the east must travel, still is nature's priest." "This *painting* was done by a real artist." "All *nature* is at rest." "She was a *vision* of delight." These nouns are concrete.

Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives, from verbs, and from nouns, and the infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun. By the use of the affix *ness* the adjective *hard* becomes the abstract noun, *hardness*. So *priesthood* is derived from the noun *priest* by the addition of *hood*. The verb *grow* gives the abstract noun *growth*. "*To err* is human." The infinitive, here used as the subject of the verb, is an abstract noun.

EXERCISES

1. Write the Abstract Nouns corresponding to the following Adjectives: accurate, brave, cruel, discreet, decent, elegant, false, gentle, honest, ignorant, just, kind, loyal, meek, neutral, perpetual, replete, sublime, splendid, true, vain, wise, weary, young.

2. Write sentences in which the following Nouns are used (1) as Concrete (2) as Abstract: age, belief, charity, fiction, government, nobility, poetry, royalty, sculpture, vision, youth.

3. Write Abstract Nouns corresponding to the following Nouns: abbot, baronet, captain, elder, mayor, peer, priest, presbyter, sheriff, thrall.

4. Give Collective Nouns to denote groups of the following: people in church, people waiting on a Minister of the Crown, the Ministers of the Crown, the deacons of a church, the Powers of Europe, cattle, geese, birds, deer.

5. *Classify the Nouns in the following passages :* The outer world from which we cower into our houses seemed after all a gentle habitable place ; and night after night a man's bed, it seemed, was laid and waiting for him in the fields where God keeps an open house. I thought I had rediscovered one of those truths which are revealed to savages and hid from political economists : at the least I had discovered a new pleasure for myself. And yet even when I was exulting in my solitude I became aware of a new lack.

The authority which he maintained at home, and the regard which he acquired among foreign nations are circumstances which entitle him in some degree to the appellation of a great prince ; while his tyranny and barbarity exclude him from the character of a good one. He possessed, indeed, great vigour of mind, which qualified him for exercising dominion over men, courage, intrepidity, vigilance, inflexibility ; and though these qualities lay not always under the guidance of a regular and solid judgment, they were accompanied with good parts and an extensive capacity ; and everyone dreaded a contest with a man who was known never to yield or to forgive, and who, in every controversy, was determined either to ruin himself or his antagonist.

27. Classification of Pronouns.

A Pronoun denotes, or points out, a person, place, or thing without actually naming it. Since the Pronoun stands instead of a Noun it follows that a Pronoun has no fixed meaning of its own. The Noun *book* or *horse* has an invariable meaning. Since the Pronoun derives its meaning from the Noun, it may carry any one of a thousand meanings.

A Pronoun identifies the object not by its name but by its relation to something else. *Thou* is a pronoun. It

points out the person by indicating his relation to *me*, the speaker. The Pronoun is a relational, not a notional word. It is used to mark certain relations in which objects, persons, or things, stand to the speaker and certain persons spoken to or spoken of. *This* is a word which indicates without naming some object. The object is indicated by marking its relation in space, *i.e.*, nearness to the speaker. *That* indicates the relation in which some object stands in respect of distance from the speaker. A Pronoun may be defined as a word which indicates a person, place, or thing not by giving it a name, but by marking its relation to some other thing, or more shortly as above, it denotes a person, place, or thing without actually naming it.

Pronouns are usually divided into six classes, PERSONAL, DEMONSTRATIVE, INDEFINITE, REFLEXIVE, CONJUNCTIVE or RELATIVE, and INTERROGATIVE.

1. There are three subdivisions of the PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

(a) Personal Pronouns of the First Person. They are used when a person speaks of himself either singly or in conjunction with others, without mentioning names.

(b) Personal Pronouns of the Second Person. They are used when we speak of a person spoken to; *thou*, *ye* or *you*.

(c) Personal Pronouns of the Third Person : *he*, *she*, *it*,
• *they*.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	I.	We.
Possessive	Mine or My.	Our or Ours.
Objective	Me.	Us.
Nominative	Thou.	Ye or You.
Possessive	Thou or Thy.	Your or Yours.
Objective	Thee.	Ye or You.
Nominative	He, She, It.	They.
Possessive	His, Her or Hers, Its.	Theirs or Their.
Objective	Him, Her, It.	Them.

For convenience the Possessive forms are included within the table given above; but *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their* are in reality qualifying words, and belong with the adjectives.

Ordinarily *you*, *your*, and *yours* are employed in the singular as well as in the plural. Nevertheless *you* when used as the subject of a sentence requires the plural form of the verb, whether the sense is singular or plural. *Thou*, *thine*, *thy*, and *thee* are used only in poetry or elevated prose and in the solemn language of worship.

We is not properly the plural of *I*. It is used to denote not plurality of speakers, but the speaker and others with whom he is associated. The idea does not admit of plurality.

2. THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*. They are used for nouns that have already been employed. "There are many flowers in the garden. *This* is a rose; *that* is a lily. *These* are sweet peas;

those are asters." A Demonstrative may be used to refer to a whole sentence. "He will spend Christmas with us, and *that* will be jolly."

The DEMONSTRATIVE Pronoun points definitely at something or somebody. The Third Personal Pronouns are frequently placed with the Demonstratives. This is quite admissible, since they point to some noun going before, and are substituted for it. They are sometimes called Demonstrative Pronouns of the Third Person.

3. The INDEFINITE Pronouns point out objects, but less definitely than the Demonstratives: *Each, every, either, neither, both, one, none, any, all, such, some, few, other, another, each other, one another*.

Each, every, either, neither are distributive. *Each* distributes two or more than two. "He gave an apple to *each* of the boys." *Every* refers to more than two and includes all. It is thus equivalent to *each and all*. *Either* sometimes means *each*, and sometimes *both*. "On either side of the street," *i.e.*, on both sides. *Either* and *neither* distribute two. Several of these are words of number and quantity. *Each other* and *one another* have a reciprocal meaning, the former usually employed with reference to two, the latter usually though not invariably with reference to more than two. *One* is often used vaguely in the sense of any person or every person. "*One* should avoid such scenes."

4. The use of the term REFLEXIVE to apply to *myself, ourselves, yourself, himself, herself, itself, themselves, oneself*, indicates that an action directly or indirectly affects the doer of it. "You will hurt yourself." These

forms are also used to mark emphasis: "He himself admits it."

5. The CONJUNCTIVE or RELATIVE PRONOUNS are five in number, and are to be met with in Complex sentences. "This is the book *which* contains so many beautiful poems." "The general *who* commanded the army at that time was incompetent." "I saw *what* he was doing." "His character was not such *as* I admire." "This is the house *that* Jack built."

A Conjunctive or Relative pronoun not only stands for the person or thing spoken about (and called the Antecedent) but also connects the subordinate clause in which it stands with the main or principal one. *Which* in the first sentence denotes the thing indicated by the antecedent *book*, and connects the clause *which contains so many beautiful poems* with the word *book* in the main or principal clause *This is the book*. In the second sentence *who* refers to its antecedent *general*. In the third the relative is *what*. *What* is unlike other conjunctive pronouns in that its antecedent is suppressed. *As* in the fourth sentence not only refers to *such*, but also introduces the subordinate clause *as I admire*. *That* in the clause *that Jack built* performs the same offices, referring to its antecedent *house*, and connecting the principal and subordinate clauses.

Who, *whose*, *whom* are the nominative, possessive, and objective forms of that pronoun in both singular and plural. The use of these forms may be seen in the following: "Their companions in arms with *whom* they had marched and camped, *whom* they had loved and trusted, *whose* fine soldierly conduct had been an

inspiration, and *who* were about to return home, now bade them farewell."

The other relatives are indeclinable.

Who refers to persons only. In the case of animals and things *which* is employed. *That* is used to refer to both persons and things.

Who and *which* possess a continuative force. *That* is restrictive, and should not be used if the antecedent is already clearly defined. A proper noun, for example, clearly defines the individual spoken of. Hence it is correct to say: "Mr. Jones *who* has been ill is about again." The expression *my mother* accurately designates a certain individual. Hence it is proper to say: "My mother *who* is abroad is ill." The expression "*The minister that sat at the head of the table*" suggests that there were other ministers present. One could not say "*The prime minister that sat at the head of the table*," unless there were more than one prime minister present. Such a sentence as "Mr. Robinson, who was imperfectly heard in the Press Gallery, was understood to say, etc." means "Mr. Robinson, and he was imperfectly heard in the Press Gallery, was understood to say, etc."

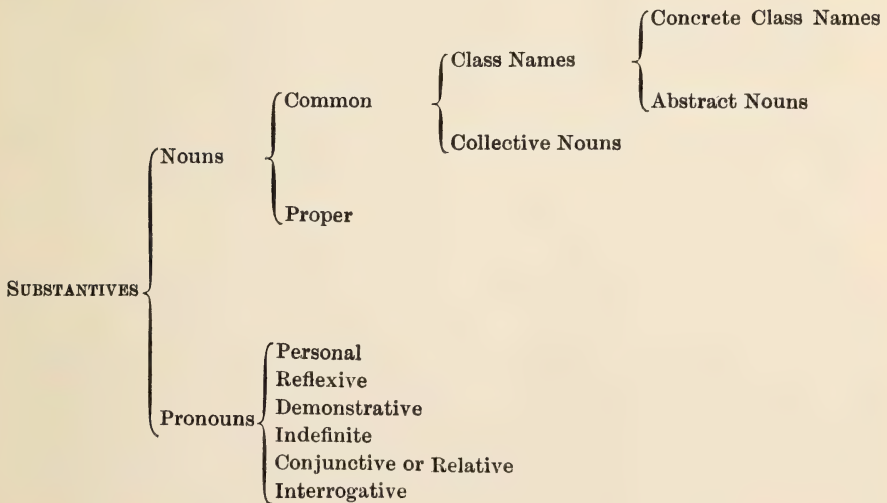
Which preceded by a preposition is often replaced by *where*, as *wherein* = *in which*; *whereto* = *to which*.

The relative *what* is used to refer to an antecedent that is neuter and singular. This antecedent is suppressed. The relative *as* is often used after *same* and *such*. "This is not the same as that." "He desired such as loved plunder to follow him."

That may be employed in reference to persons or to things. If governed by a preposition the preposition takes its place at the end of the sentence. "The incident that I referred to." We may say: "The incident to *which* I referred," or "the man of *whom* I spoke;" but when used as a relative *that* does not follow a preposition. *That* conveniently serves as a general relative where there are two or more antecedents expressing both persons and things. "The horses and the men *that* made the journey suffered greatly from the heat."

6. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are three in number and are used in asking questions. *Who* and *which* are used both as singular and as plural, the former referring to persons only. *What* is singular. *Whether* was formerly employed as an interrogative as in the form: "Whether is greater the gift or the altar?" The meaning is "*Which of the two?*"

The following table exhibits fairly well the various kinds of substantives:



CHAPTER IX

INFLECTIONS OF THE NOUN

28. Number.

Number in Nouns is a difference in form which shows whether we are speaking of one thing or of more than one. The SINGULAR NUMBER is used when we speak of one of the things for which the Noun stands: as *house*, *child*, *boy*. The PLURAL NUMBER is used when we speak of more than one of that for which the Noun stands: as *houses*, *children*, *boys*.

There are three ways of forming the Plural :

1. By adding the syllable *es* or the single letter *s* where pronunciation admits of it: *gas*, *gases*, *witch*, *witches*, *box*, *boxes*; and *tub*, *tubs*, *boy*, *boys*, *bear*, *bears*.

This forms the general rule. More particularly it will be noticed that *es* is used to form the plural of

- (a) Nouns ending in a sibilant (*s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *x*, or *z*).
- (b) Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant. Change *y* into *ie*, and add *s*.
- (c) English Nouns ending in *f* or *lf* preceded by any long vowel except *oo*. Change *f* into *v* and add *es*.
- (d) Some nouns ending in *o*.

Examples of the first group are: *guess*, *guesses*; *dish*, *dishes*; *church*, *churches*; *index*, *indexes*; *topaz*, *topazes*. In *monarch* and *loch* the *ch* is harder, and the plurals are *monarchs* and *locks*. Such words as *lady*, *ladies*; *country*, *countries*; *navy*, *navies* belong to the second group. When *y* at the end of a word is preceded by a

vowel, the plural is formed by the addition of *s*, the *y* remaining unchanged: valley, *valleys*; boy, *boys*; delay, *delays*. The *qu* of *soliloquy* counts as a consonant, and the plural is therefore *soliloquies*. So also colloquy, *colloquies*. Alkali becomes *alkalies* in the plural, the *i* being treated like *y*.

In the third group we have calf, *calves*; elf, *elves*; knife, *knives*; leaf, *leaves*; life, *lives*; loaf, *loaves*; sheaf, *sheaves*; shelf, *shelves*; thief, *thieves*; wife, *wives*; wolf, *wolves*. These words are of English origin. The long vowel sound *oo* in *roof*, *hoof* is followed by *s* in the plurals *roofs*, *hoofs*. *Brief*, *chief*, *proof*, *safe*, *strife*, are not of English origin and take *s* in the plural. *Beef* is exceptional in forming its plural *beeves* as the word is French.

No comprehensive rule can be given for nouns in *o*. *Cargo*, *echo*, *hero*, *negro*, *potato*, take *es*. But nouns ending in *io* and *oo* take *s*: folio, *folios*; cuckoo, *cuckoos*.

A number of nouns, mostly Italian, take *s* in the plural: *domino*, *canto*, *grotto*, *octavo*, *quarto*, *rondo*, *solo*, *tyro*, *virtuoso*.

In some instances when *s* alone is added to form the plural it is easier to give it the flat sound (*z*) as in tub, *tubs*, or to pronounce it as an additional syllable (horse, *horses*), than to give it the sharp sound as in hat, *hats*; trap, *traps*; book, *books*.

2. By adding *en*: as in ox, *oxen*; brother, *brethren*; cow, *kine*; child, *children*.

The last three words are double plurals. *Kine* is formed from *cy*, *children* from *childer*, and *brethren* from *brether*. *Kye* and *childer* are still used locally as plurals.

3. By changing the vowel sound of the word: as in
goose, *geese*; mouse, *mice*; man, *men*; foot, *feet*.

Certain Nouns have the same form for both numbers as *deer, grouse, sheep, fish, head, yoke, year, pound*, and also the names of certain kinds of fish, as *cod, mackerel, perch, salmon*, etc. In other cases plurals are formed as usual, thus: *sharks, whales, herrings*, etc. Where the noun expresses quantity or number the plural form is often the same as the singular: Three *score* and ten; ten *sail*; two *dozen*; three *pair* of boots; four *brace* of birds; the *Five-Mile Act*; twelve *stone*.

Certain Nouns have no Singular form: as *measles, scissors, riches, antipodes, billiards, banns, tongs, politics, mathematics, victuals, vitals, annals, nuptials*.

Certain Nouns are singular in meaning though plural in form: *amends, news, means, pains, innings, gallows*. These are usually preceded by a singular demonstrative (*this, that*) and by *much* or *little* (not *many* or *few*), but may require a verb in the plural: *This news*; *this innings*; *much pains*; *means were found*; *wages have risen*. *Alms, summons, riches, eaves* are singular: *An alms. A summons*.

Certain Nouns possess a secondary meaning in the plural which does not belong to the singular: *compasses, corns, customs, draughts, effects* (property), *grains, goods, grounds, letters* (literature), *matins, numbers* (poetry), *pains, parts* (capacity), *respects, returns, salts, stocks, vapours* (ill humour), *vespers*.

Some of the names of substances and materials are used only in the singular: *gold, silver, granite, hemp*,

bread, potash, flesh. But sometimes these names are used in the plural form to denote varieties of the substances or things made from the material: as *sands, clays, silks, sugars, wines, coppers, irons, glasses, leads.*

Many abstract Nouns form Plurals which denote separate and actual instances of the quality: as “the *beauties* of the landscape;” “a good man’s *virtues*;” “his pet *aversions*;” “serious *hardships*.” Some abstract nouns are never treated in this way. We do not speak of *manhoods, courages, indolences*; but Mason quotes an ingenious writer who tells of a group of people watching a favourite child and “*vying with each other in detecting and celebrating darlingnesses.*”

Certain foreign words retain their own proper plurals: as *genus, genera.* The Appendix contains a list of these and a table of Double Plurals.

Compound nouns vary in their manner of forming the plural. Sometimes both nouns take the plural form, as *Knights-templars, lords-justices, men-servants.* When the fusion of the two parts is complete the *s* is at the end as *handfuls, rosetrees.* The plural inflection is added to the noun in compounds like *courts-martial, brothers-in-law*, where the fusion of the noun with the attributive word or phrase is not complete.

29. Gender.

The grammatical distinction of Gender corresponds to the natural division of living beings into two sexes. The names of beings of the male sex are said to be Masculine Nouns or Nouns of the MASCULINE GENDER, and the names of beings of the female sex are called Feminine

Nouns or Nouns of the FEMININE GENDER. Things without life are not of either sex, and the name of anything without life is called a NEUTER NOUN or a Noun of the NEUTER GENDER.

Point out the nouns in the following list which indicate a distinction of sex :

Man, bird, daughter, heroine, duke, parent, child, writer, servant, king, sovereign, visitor, monk, vixen, doctor, lawyer, infant, colonel, prince, friend, adviser, countess, teacher, clerk, stenographer, librarian, officer, teamster, animal, marquis, painter, musician, poet, spouse, cousin.

Some of the Nouns in this list do not indicate sex. As the sex of the object is the basis of the distinction of grammatical gender, such Nouns as actually imply a distinction of sex are said to be of the masculine or the feminine gender. When a Noun implies no distinction of sex it does not, properly speaking, possess the grammatical inflection of Gender. A child, a parent, a sovereign, a friend must be either of the male sex or of the female sex. But the words *child*, *parent*, *sovereign*, etc., are from the point of view of grammar without gender. The sentence "My friend told me he intended to call shortly" contains a pronoun which enables us to determine the sex of the person spoken of, but the grammatical distinction of gender applies to the pronoun *he*, and not in a strict view of the matter to the noun *friend*. The term COMMON GENDER is applied to the Noun when the sex of the individual is undetermined. The distinction between NEUTER Nouns, representing objects without life and therefore without sex, and

Nouns of COMMON GENDER denoting living beings without indicating their sex is a convenient one.

A knowledge of the distinction of gender in nouns is of importance chiefly in regard to the right use of pronouns of the third person. In other languages gender occupies a very much more prominent place. In English the basis of gender, as we have seen, is the natural distinction of sex. Objects are as a matter of fact of the male sex, of the female sex, or without life and therefore of no sex. Following this natural classification we distinguish nouns of the masculine gender, nouns of the feminine gender, and nouns of the neuter gender. But in other languages the gender of nouns is not based on sex, and masculine nouns do not necessarily represent male objects, nor feminine nouns female objects. On the contrary an artificial system of genders having no necessary relation to the sex of the objects is employed. The gender of nouns is determined by certain endings, and not by the meaning and application of the word. In Old English the word corresponding to our word *maiden* was neuter; that for *freedom* was masculine; the equivalent of *learning* was feminine. The French word for *sky* is masculine, the Latin *res*, a thing, is feminine. The German *Weib*, wife, woman, is neuter.

One departure from the rule in English that gender follows sex is in the familiar case of Personification. Things without life are sometimes spoken of as if they were living beings and therefore possessed of the qualities of living beings. Hence masculine and feminine pronouns are used in speaking of them in this rhetorical way. Certain objects in nature suggest to our minds

strength, violence, destruction, while others are associated with gentler and softer emotions and ideas. Thus *the Sun, Time, Day, Winter, rivers, mountains, the ocean, winds, anger, murder, war*, are spoken of as if they were of the male sex. *The Moon, the Earth, Night, Spring, Nature, countries, cities, arts and science, Poetry, Religion, Love, Victory, Mercy*, are personified as females.

In speaking of very young children and of the lower animals the sex is sometimes disregarded, and the neuter pronoun *it* employed.

Gender may be defined as the form of a noun or pronoun which corresponds to the sex of the individual denoted by the name. The sex of living beings is indicated in three ways:

1. By different words, as *father, mother ; uncle, aunt*.
2. By inflection : as *governor, governess ; hero, heroine , fox, vixen*.
3. By prefixing a Masculine or Feminine Noun or Pronoun : as *man-servant, maid-servant ; he-goat, she-goat*.

Lists of words belonging to these classes are given in the Appendix.

The method of inflection deserves a word of explanation. Different suffixes are used for the masculine and the feminine in certain cases. In others the feminine is formed from the masculine by feminine suffixes. The suffix *er* was once exclusively masculine, and *ster* feminine. The latter is to be found in *maltster, tapster, baxter* (baker), *webster* (weaver).

The suffix *ess* is the commonest of those used to form feminines from the masculine. *En* in *vixen*, the

feminine of *fox*; *trix*, as in *testatrix*; *ine* as in *heroine*, *landgravine*; *a* as in *signora*, *sultana*, *infanta*, *czarina*, complete the list of suffixes. Of these *er*, *ster*, and *en* are of English origin.

Sempstress and *songstress* are double feminines combining the English *ster* with the *ess* which came from the Latin through the French. *Ess* is the only suffix now employed in the formation of new feminines, so that hybrids are bound to appear as a result.

Widower has the appearance, at any rate, of a masculine derived from a feminine noun, although there is good authority for the opinion that the *er* may simply represent the O.E. suffix *a* (masculine *widuwa*, feminine *widuwe*). *Bridegroom* is a compound (O.E. *guma* = man).

30. Case.

Before dealing with the Noun it will be convenient to notice the case forms of the Pronoun.

CASE is the form in which a Pronoun is used in order to show its relation to some other word in the sentence.

There are three Cases: the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

The NOMINATIVE CASE is that form of a Pronoun which is used when it is the subject of a verb. "He is my brother." *He* is the subject of the verb, and is said to be in the Nominative Case.

The Possessive Case is that form of a Pronoun which is used to show that something belongs to or is connected with the person or thing for which it stands. "His house is near the river." The Pronoun *his* takes this

form to show that it stands for the person to whom the house belongs, and is said to be in the Possessive Case.

The Objective Case is that form in which a Pronoun is used when it stands for the object of the action spoken of in some verb in the Active voice, or when it comes after a preposition. "John struck him." In this sentence *him* stands for the object of the action. "The lad ran after us." The pronoun *us* is here used with a preposition in the phrase *after us*. *Him* and *us* are said to be in the Objective case. The Objective case is also used to denote the Indirect Object of the Verb. The indirect object stands for some person or thing indirectly affected by the action. In the sentence: "John gave me a shilling," *me* is called the Indirect Object and takes the Objective form.

The forms of the First Personal Pronoun are as follows:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	I.	We.
Possessive	Mine or My.	Ours or Our.
Objective	Me.	Us.

Corresponding to this a table may be constructed for the noun:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative	Man.	Men.
Possessive	Man's.	Men's.
Objective	Man.	Men.

Observe that in the Noun the only change of form is in the Possessive.

The Nominative and the Objective are the same in form.

The form of the Pronoun indicates its relation in the sentence. But the form of the Noun affords no clue to determine its relation as subject of a sentence ("The *man* went home"), as Object of a verb, direct or indirect ("I saw the *man*," "John gave the *man* a shilling"), or as governed by a preposition ("John walked with the *man*"). Wherever the Possessive form is used ("The man's hat is lost") the form of the word is a sure indication of the relation in which it stands. *Man* may be used either as subject or as object, and the position it occupies in the sentence indicates its relation. Sentences in which the usual order is observed give us no trouble. Where that order is changed confusion may occur. "The King yet lives that Henry shall depose." Ordinarily we should say that *Henry* is the subject of the verb *shall depose*. But an entirely different meaning is possible. *Henry* may be regarded as the object of the verb *shall depose*, and *that* the subject.

Since the Noun has only two case forms, one for the Possessive, and another for all other relations, it is obvious that some *rule of position* is necessary to prevent confusion. Accordingly the subject usually comes before, and the object after the verb.

As far as the Noun is concerned, then, when we speak of the Nominative and Objective cases, the relation in which the Noun stands is not indicated by its *form* but by its *position*; whereas the relation of the Noun in the Possessive case is distinctly shown by its *form*. The definition of case as given above in connection with the Pronoun therefore cannot be applied in strictness to the Noun. It is usual, however, to speak of the Nominative

and Objective cases of the Noun, although the two are always the same in form. And if we keep rigidly to the idea of function as the basis of classification it is clear that the Possessive forms of the Pronoun (*my, thy, your, our, his*, and the rest) should be regarded as Adjectives. It is true that they stand instead of Nouns, but it is also true that their work in the sentence is to qualify Nouns.

The Nominative (L. *nominativus*, naming) is the Naming Form. It names either the person or thing spoken of, or the one spoken to. The latter case is called the NOMINATIVE of ADDRESS or the Vocative. "O King, live forever!" "*Mary*, attend to your work." "*England*, with all thy faults, I love thee still."

The Possessive Case (L. *possidere, possessum*, to possess) in the singular is formed by adding *s* to the Noun: "The man's hat." Plurals not ending in *s* form their Possessive in the same way as singulars. "*Men's* boots;" "*children's* amusements;" The Possessives of other plurals are made by the addition of an apostrophe only; "*Ladies'* hats." Singular nouns ending in an *s* or *z* sound take either an apostrophe only ("for *conscience'* sake") or the complete sign ("*Mr. Jones's* house").

The relation indicated by the inflection *s* with the apostrophe may be expressed by a phrase: For "the King's enemies" we may say "the enemies of the King;" for "the cat's eyes," "the eyes of the cat," etc. An exception may be mentioned: "The Lord's Day" does not mean "the Day of the Lord."

Usually the inflected form is not now used, except in a few cases, unless the noun denotes a person or an

animal, or something personified. "The *earth's* axis," "the *moon's* orbit," "a *month's* leave of absence," "a *week's* illness" are exceptions. "*Death's* door," "*Duty's* call," "*Friendship's* offering," "*Love's* tribute" are familiar examples of personification.

In the case of a complex name or a compound noun the inflection is placed at the end. Thus we say: "*Julius Caesar's* death," "*my father-in-law's* house," "*the Duke of Hamilton's* estates," "*Smith the baker's* horse. But such forms as "It is Othello's pleasure our noble and valiant general" are no longer employed.

The origin of the possessive inflection is to be found in Old English. The apostrophe indicates that a vowel has been dropped. The O.E. suffix *es* may be seen in the word Wednesday, *i.e.*, *Wodenes-day*, and heard in many words ending in a sibilant, as *duchess'*, *Thomas'*.

The apostrophe came into use in singular nouns toward the end of the seventeenth century. Milton uses it only after a vowel: "Siloa's brook that flowed." Its use in the plural began later.

The opinion was widely accepted at one time that the possessive 's was an abbreviation of *his*. "The king, his crown;" "Mordecai, his matters," etc. This theory is incorrect, as historical grammar shows; and in any case it leaves unexplained the feminine and plural possessive forms of *hers*, *ours*, etc., and the formation of *his* from *he*. "*Mary's book*" is certainly not equal to "*Mary his book*."

CHAPTER X

SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES

31. Meaning of the Term.

Sentences as we have seen may be short and simple, or they may be long and complex. Sometimes it is comparatively easy, sometimes it is difficult to explain exactly the relation of a given part or member to the other words in the sentence. Certain words are more closely related than others. There are three ways in which the members of a sentence may be related to each other.

One word may be said to agree with another. Thus, in the sentence: "My uncle is sorry that he cannot come," both the verb *is* and the pronoun *he* agree in number with the noun *uncle*, subject of the sentence and antecedent of *he*. This relation is called AGREEMENT or CONCORD.

One word may be said to govern another. Thus, in the sentence: "I saw him once before," the pronoun *him* is in the objective case after the verb *saw*, and is said to be governed by the verb. So in the sentence: "The prize was given to her." The pronoun *her* is in the objective case following the preposition *to* in the phrase *to her*, and is said to be governed by the preposition. This relation is called GOVERNMENT.

Again, one word precedes or follows another. Thus, in the sentence "John saw James," any change in the order of the words would cause a change or confusion in meaning. We know that *James* is the object of the verb *struck* only because it comes after the verb. This is an illustration of the way in which the relation of words is indicated by their order in the sentence; and this relation is called ORDER or POSITION.

These three relations, AGREEMENT or CONCORD, GOVERNMENT, and ORDER or POSITION are called syntactical relations, and that part of grammar which deals with these relations is called SYNTAX. The word means *arrangement*.

32. Various Uses of the Noun.

Examine the following sentences :

1. The man ran away.
2. Milton the poet was blind.
3. Dora, I am glad to see you.
4. The storm over, we ventured out.
5. The man's sword was drawn.
6. You are the man.
7. He was called John.
8. The soldier slew his enemy.
9. He gave the man a shilling.
10. He was promised a prize.
11. They appointed him general.
12. The birds sing in the tree.
13. He jumped six feet.

	ATTRIBUTES	SUBJECT	PREDICATE	COMPLEMENT	OBJECT	ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS
1.	The	man	ran			away
2.	the poet	Milton	was	blind		
3.		I	am	glad to see you		
4.		we	ventured			out The storm over
5.	The man's	sword	was drawn			
6.		You	are	the man		
7.		He	was called	John		
8.	The	soldier	slew		his enemy	
9.		He	gave		the man a shilling	
10.		He	was promised		a prize	
11.		They	appointed		(1) him (2) general	
12.	The	birds	sing			in the tree
13.		He	jumped			six feet

The various uses of the Noun may be seen in the above analysis. The Noun may be used as (1) the SUBJECT of a Verb: "The man ran away." Here *man* is the Subject of the verb *ran*, and is in the Nominative case.

(2) As an APPOSITIVE or NOUN IN APPPOSITION: "Milton the poet was blind." *Poet* is the second of two substantives standing in the same part of the sentence and denoting the same person, and is therefore said to be a Noun in Apposition with the first noun *Milton*, which it qualifies or describes as an Adjective would do.

(3) As a VOCATIVE or NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS: *Dora*, I am glad to see you. The Noun *Dora* is independent of any verb, is no part either of the subject or of the

predicate, and as thus used for the purpose of addressing a person directly is known as a Vocative or Nominative of Address.

(4) As a NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE: "The storm over, we ventured out." The noun *storm* is here used as part of a phrase expressing the time, circumstance, or cause of an action, and not as the subject of a verb, and is known by the name of Nominative Absolute. The whole phrase is an Adverbial Modifier.

(5) As a QUALIFIER or ATTRIBUTE: "The man's sword was drawn." *Man's* takes the possessive form as a qualifier of the noun *sword*.

(6) As a COMPLEMENT with certain intransitive verbs: "You are the man." *Man* completes the predicate, and is in the Nominative case.

(7) As a SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT with certain transitive verbs in the passive: "He was called John." *John* completes the meaning of the sentence and is in the Nominative Case.

(8) As the DIRECT OBJECT of a verb: "The soldier slew his enemy." *Enemy* is the direct object of the verb *slew*, and is in the Objective case.

(9) As an INDIRECT OBJECT of the verb: "He gave the man a shilling." The *man* stands for the object indirectly affected by the action denoted by the verb *gave*, is called the Indirect Object, and is in the Objective Case.

(10) As a RETAINED OBJECT: "He was promised a prize." The Noun *prize* is here the retained object after the passive verb *was promised*, and is in the Objective case.

(11) As an OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT: "They appointed him general." *General* completes the meaning of the sentence, and is in the Objective Case.

(12) As the OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION: "The birds sing in the tree." *Tree* is here used after the preposition *in* in the phrase *in the tree*, and is in the Objective case.

(13) As an ADVERBIAL ADJUNCT: "He jumped six feet." The Noun *feet* is an adverbial modifier of the verb *jumped*.

33. Syntactical Relations of the Noun.

Our task now is to collect these various uses of the substantive under three heads. We have seen that the relations which words bear to each other in a sentence, their syntactical relations to each other are those of AGREEMENT or Concord, GOVERNMENT, and ORDER or Position.

AGREEMENT

The verb *be* takes the same case after as before it. This is true also of certain other intransitive verbs which require a complement: *become, continue, seem, feel*. "He is an honest man." *Man* agrees with the subject of the sentence *he*.

GOVERNMENT

The case of the Noun is determined in its own sentences as Subject, Object, Objective Complement, Subjective Complement, Adjunct, or Attribute.

(1) AS SUBJECT, the Noun is in the Nominative Case.
"John loves his brother."

(2) AS DIRECT OBJECT of a transitive verb, the Noun is in the Objective case: "Cæsar conquered Gaul."
Gaul is here governed by the verb *conquered*.

- (3) As INDIRECT OBJECT of a transitive verb, the Noun is in the Objective case: "They gave the man a present." *Man* is here governed by the verb *gave*.
- (4) As the COMPLEMENT of a transitive verb, the Noun is in the Objective case: "She called the man a liar." *Liar* is an example of the so-called factitive object and is governed by the verb *called*.
- (5) As SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT of a transitive verb in the passive, the Noun is in the Nominative Case: "He was made king." *King* is Subjective Complement after the passive verb *was made*.
- (6) As an ADVERBIAL ADJUNCT marking time, space, or degree, the Noun is in the Objective case: "This cost six shillings." *Shillings* is governed by the verb *cost*.
- (7) As the OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION, the Noun is governed by the Preposition: "The lad ran to the field." *Field* is governed in the Objective case by the preposition *to*.
- (8) As RETAINED OBJECT. When a sentence in the Active form with two objects is changed to the Passive, one of these objects may be retained, the other becoming the subject. "The man gave him a shilling." "He was given a shilling by the man." *Shilling* is here governed in the Objective case by the passive verb *was given*.
- (9) As an ATTRIBUTE or Qualifier, the Noun in the Possessive case is said to depend upon the Noun it qualifies: "The man's coat was torn." The Noun *man's* is Possessive case depending on the Noun *coat*.

ORDER

(a) The usual order of the Noun as Subject in relation to the verb is (1) Subject ; (2) Verb.

The exceptions are :

In Questions : "Is John at home?"

In **CONDITIONAL CLAUSES** without *if* or *though* : "Were Richard mine, his power were mine."

In certain cases for purposes of **EMPHASIS** : "Then passed a weary time." "In my Father's house are many mansions ;" "Now fades the glimmering landscape ;" "Up rose Charlie, brave as a lion."

After a **QUOTATION** in the phrases : "quoth John ;" "answered the doctor ;" "said the king."

With certain **NEGATIVE ADVERBS** and **CONJUNCTIONS**, and Adverbs implying Negation : "I will not go, nor will John ;" "Nowhere has business been better ;" "Rarely does a man surrender completely ;" "Little did these men think of the result."

In sentences introduced by the expletive **THERE**. "There are many citizens who neglect to vote."

In **OPTATIVE SENTENCES** "Long live the King !" "Perish the thought !" But where there is an object the usual order is followed : "God save the King."

(b) The Possessive case of the Noun invariably precedes the Noun on which it depends. "The boy's coat." "The man's hand." But when the corresponding form with the preposition *of* is used the phrase usually follows :

"The hand of the man." Where emphasis is required it may precede : "Of these men Richard was the leader."

(c) The Object follows the verb as a general rule. The exceptions are :

In EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES : "What a fine picture he has painted !" In certain forms of QUESTION : "Which house did he sell ?"

Where EMPHASIS is desired : "That error he determined to recant ;" "Silver and gold have I none."

When there are two objects, a direct and an indirect, the indirect object whether a Noun or a Pronoun precedes the direct object when the latter is a Noun : "I bought him a toy." "They gave us some help."

NOTES

1. The Noun in Apposition agrees always in case with the Noun which it is used to explain. It usually agrees in number and gender. In every instance of Apposition if the first Noun is in the Nominative, the Noun in Apposition is also Nominative : "Jones, the banker, lives there." If Objective, the Appositive is also Objective : "We heard Brown, the famous lecturer." In the expression : "This is Wilson's, the blacksmith's horse" we have both Nouns in the possessive case. This form is not much in use. We say : "This is Wilson the blacksmith's horse," and in such a case we have a compound noun and no apposition.

"The army, twenty thousand veterans, marched against the enemy ;" "A dozen men and boys, a disorderly mob indeed, appeared on the scene." In these sentences there is no agreement in number between the principal Noun and the Appositive. Occasionally too we find it necessary to use an Appositive of common gender with a masculine Noun : "Scott the novelist."

2. The Nominative Absolute usually consists of a Noun or its equivalent and a participle qualifying it. The word Absolute must not be understood to mean that the *Absolute* phrase stands in no relation to the sentence. It expresses the time, cause, or circumstance of the action, and while it may be detached without affecting the structure of the sentence, it nevertheless serves as a modifier after the manner of an adverb, although its relation to what it modifies is not indicated by any case-form or connecting word

“*Night coming on*, the traveller sought refuge from the storm.”

“*The rain having ceased*, the day was delightful.”

“*His friends having suggested the step*, the officer resigned.”

The above are examples of the absolute Nominative consisting of Nouns and qualifying Participles.

Sometimes in absolute constructions the participle is omitted :

“The storm over, we ventured out.”

“Both hands numb with cold, he returned.”

“All well, I start this day week.”

“The ceremony over, the assembly dispersed.”

Sometimes the substantive is omitted :

“Taking one consideration with another, a policeman’s life is not a happy one.”

“Considering all the circumstances, things might have turned out worse.”

With the substantive supplied we have :

“One taking one consideration, etc.”

“One considering all the circumstances, etc.”

The misuse of the participle is very common. A participle may be a part of an absolute construction or it may be definitely related, not to any Nominative absolute, but to some word in the main sentence. But it ought to be distinctly either the one or the other.

“Being a very hot day, I put on a light suit.”

We have here a phrase, *being a hot day*, which is not an absolute construction, and which is not related to *I*. The correct form would be :

“It being a very hot day, I put on a light suit.”

The following sentences are incorrect :

“Having perceived the weakness of his poems, they now appear under new titles.”

“Having taken this resolution, the soldier’s next care was to make his will.”

“Vainly endeavouring to suppress his emotion, the interview was abruptly brought to an end.”

In the absolute form of construction these sentences would read :

“The weakness of his poems having been perceived, they now appear under new titles ;” or “The poet having perceived the weakness of his poems, they now appear under new titles.” “This resolution having been taken, the soldier’s next care was to make his will ;” or “The soldier having taken this resolution, his next care was to make his will.” “The man’s endeavours to suppress his emotion being in vain, the interview was abruptly brought to an end ;” or “The man having vainly endeavoured to suppress his emotion the interview was abruptly brought to an end.”

With a properly related participle the form would be :

“Having perceived the weakness of his poems he now published them under new titles.” “Having taken this resolution the soldier next attended to the making of his will.” “Vainly endeavouring to suppress his emotions, he abruptly brought the interview to an end.”

3. The term POSSESSIVE is sometimes misleading, as may be seen in the following examples: “A day’s journey;” “the King’s reign.” Possession is not indicated in these phrases. Whether possession is denoted or not a better term would be ADJECTIVAL, since the form has the force of an adjective. However, the term Possessive is so generally used that it would be difficult to displace it.

4. A phrase composed of the preposition *of* followed by a substantive in the objective case is often used as an equivalent for the inflected possessive; “Shakespeare’s works,” “the works *of Shakespeare* ;” “the sun’s rays,” “the rays *of the sun* ;” “the King’s crown,” “the crown *of the king* ;” “Wellington’s victories,” “the victories *of Wellington* .” The possessive form here is a true possessive case. The substantive in the equivalent phrase is the object of the preposition.

A phrase so constructed is often a substitute for the inflected possessive where the latter cannot be employed. Neuter nouns are not usually inflected for the possessive. We say: “the window of the room,” “the key of the cabinet.”

5. The inflected possessive commonly expresses possession: “Tom’s hat,” “the man’s house.” But observe

the following: "A mother's love;" "Cæsar's conquest;" "Napoleon's retreat;" "the law's delay;" "the soldier's dream." It is clear that in these cases the words *mother*, *Cæsar*, *soldier*, *law*, *Napoleon*, may be used as the subject of a verb suggested by the modified noun: "The mother loves," "Cæsar conquered," "Napoleon retreated," etc. On the other hand in such expressions as "The earth's Creator," "Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo," "Mary Stuart's execution," it is obvious that the actions suggested by the words *Creator*, *defeat*, *execution* are directed toward the object or person indicated by the possessive. Someone created the earth, someone defeated Napoleon, someone executed Mary.

We have, then, two uses of the inflected possessive: (a) to denote the subject; (b) to denote the object of an action. The former is called the **SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE**, the latter the **OBJECTIVE GENITIVE**.

The Objective Genitive is, however, in most instances expressed by a phrase composed of the preposition *of* with its object: "the fear of God," "the love of money."

6. The phrasal form sometimes takes the place of a noun in apposition: "the city of London;" "the month of June;" "the island of Malta." In poetry the possessive form is often used: "Erin's isle;" "Canada's woods;" "Scotia's strand." This use is sometimes called the **APPOSITIVE GENITIVE**.

7. In turning a sentence with two objects from the active to the passive form either of these objects may become the subject of the verb in the passive; and hence either may become the **RETAINED OBJECT**: "The captain

granted the man a half holiday ;” “ The man was granted *a half holiday* by the captain ;” “ A half holiday was granted *the man* by the captain.”

8. Certain intransitive verbs may take an object whose meaning is similar to that of the verb : “ I dreamed a dream.” “ He has lived a long life.” “ They ran their race.” “ John went an errand.” This is called a **COGNATE OBJECT**.

34. Syntactical Relations of the Pronoun.

Analyse the following sentences :

1. He went to work
2. Your statement is satisfactory.
3. These are they.
4. John saw him yesterday.
5. The general gave him great praise.
6. A prize was promised him by the master.
7. Tom will go with him.

	ATTRIBUTES	SUBJECT	PREDICATE	COMPLEMENT	OBJECT	ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS
1.		He	went			to work
2.	Your	statement	is	satisfactory		
3.		These	are	they		
4.		John	saw	him		yesterday
5.	The	general	gave		him(indirect) great praise (direct)	
6.	A	prize	was offered		him	by the master
7.		Tom	will go			with him

The various uses of the Pronoun may be seen in the above analysis to correspond to those of the Noun.

The Pronoun may be used :

1. As the SUBJECT of a verb : “He went to work.” Here *he* is the subject of the verb *went*, and is in the Nominative case.
2. As a QUALIFIER or ATTRIBUTE : “Your statement is satisfactory.” *Your* takes the Possessive form as a Qualifier of the Noun *statement*.
3. As a COMPLEMENT : “These are they.” *They* completes the predicate and takes the Nominative case.
4. As the DIRECT OBJECT of a verb : “John saw him yesterday.” *Him* is the direct object of the verb *saw*, and is in the Objective case.
5. As an INDIRECT OBJECT of a verb : “The general gave him great praise.” The PRONOUN *him* stands for the person indirectly affected by the action denoted by the verb *gave*. It is called the Indirect Object and is in the Objective Case.
6. As a RETAINED OBJECT : “A price was offered him.” The Pronoun *him* is here the retained object after the passive verb *was offered*, and is in the Objective case.
7. As the OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION : “Tom will go with him.” *Him* is here used after the preposition *with* in the phrase *with him*, and is in the Objective case.

AGREEMENT

Pronouns agree in Number, Gender, and Person with the Nouns for which they stand. The construction of the clause in which they occur determines their Case. A pronoun may happen to coincide in case with the Noun for which it stands, but this is a mere coincidence and not syntactical agreement.

“Where are the boys? They are in the garden.”

“Where is your sister? She is in the house.”

“Thou art he who has commanded us.”

The verb *be* takes the same case after it as before it.

“I am he;” ‘Who are they?’

GOVERNMENT

The case of the Pronoun is determined by its relation in its own sentence as Subject, Object, or Attribute.

(1) AS SUBJECT, the pronoun is in the Nominative Case :
“He is a successful student.”

(2) AS DIRECT OBJECT of a transitive verb, the Pronoun is in the Objective case. “The magistrate dismissed them with a caution.” *Them* is governed by the verb *dismissed*.

(3) AS INDIRECT OBJECT of a transitive verb the Pronoun is in the Objective case: “She told me a fairy tale.” The pronoun *me* is governed by the verb *told*.

(4) AS a RETAINED OBJECT. When a sentence in the active form with two objects is changed to the passive, one of these objects may be retained the other becoming the subject: “An acre of land was granted him.” *Him* is governed by the passive verb *was granted*.

(5) AS the OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION, the Pronoun is in the Objective case: “Come with us.” The Pronoun *us* is governed by the preposition *with*.

(6) AS a Qualifier or Attribute, the Pronoun in the Possessive case is said to depend upon the Noun it qualifies. “Their petition was granted.” The Pronoun *their* is in the Possessive case depending on the Noun *petition*.

ORDER

The usual order for the Pronoun is the same as for the Noun. The relative position of Pronouns of different persons when coupled together must be noticed. In the Singular the Second person comes before the First or Third (*You and I, you and he*) but the Third comes before the First (*he and I*). In the Plural *we* comes first, *you* second, and *they* third.

NOTES

1. If the antecedent of a relative pronoun is a noun standing in the predicative relation to a personal pronoun, as in the sentences: "*I am a plain blunt man that love my friend;*" "*Thou art the God that doest wonders,*" the relative agrees in person, not with its actual antecedent but with the personal pronoun.

So, in the sentence: "*It is I who am in fault,*" the relative agrees with the first personal pronoun *I* rather than with its actual antecedent *it*.

2. Certain uses of *it* deserve special attention. It is used:

(a) As anticipatory or provisional subject: "*It would be a mistake to suppose such a thing.*" The real subject is *to suppose such a thing*.

(b) In impersonal forms: "*It thunders;*" "*It was early in the morning;*" "*You will catch it;*" "*They were sadly put to it for food.*"

(c) As anticipatory object: "*The government wanted it to be made public that no concession would be*

granted." The real object here is the noun clause *that no concession would be granted*. "They saw to it that their friends were satisfied." Here the noun clause is the real object of the preposition *to*.

3. In colloquial language the forms: "That's him;" "It is me," are often used where in strictness the Nominative case should be employed. In defence of this use of the Objective, the French "*c'est moi*" is often quoted.

The reflective forms, *himself*, *themselves* are commonly used in apposition to nominatives. "He himself has said it." "The boys themselves admitted the charge."

4. The objective pronouns in the expressions: "Do me this favour;" "I will build me a house;" "I will cut him some sandwiches;" "Undo me this knot," are survivals of an old dative case.

35. Parsing of Substantives.

We analyse sentences. We parse the separate words. In order to parse the words properly we must first be able to analyse the sentence itself. Parsing consists of setting down in detail the results of the analysis of the sentence. In addition to this something must be said about the class to which the word belongs, and its inflections if it has any. To parse a word, then, is to mention its classification, its inflection, and its relation in a sentence.

The parsing of the Noun will comprise its Kind (proper, common, etc.) and its Relation in the sentence. To this may be added its Gender and Number, but this

is not often necessary as the possibility of mistake is very slight as a general thing.

Parse the Nouns in the sentence :

“John’s satisfaction was complete when the captain gave the boys his promise that their nominee should be appointed judge in the games of the regiment and should be given a badge of honour.”

WORD.	CLASS.	GRAMMATICAL RELATION.
John’s :	Noun, proper ;	Possessive case, in the attributive relation to <i>satisfaction</i> .
satisfaction :	Noun, abstract ;	Nominative case, subject of the sentence.
captain :	Noun, common ;	Nominative case, subject of the verb <i>gave</i> .
boys :	Noun, common ;	Objective case, indirect object of <i>gave</i> .
promise :	Noun, common ;	Objective case, direct object of <i>gave</i> .
nominee :	Noun, common ;	Nominative case, subject of <i>should be appointed</i> .
judge :	Noun, common ;	Nominative case, subjective complement of <i>should be appointed</i> .
games :	Noun, common ;	Objective case, object of the preposition <i>in</i> .
regiment :	Noun, collective ;	Objective case, object of preposition <i>of</i> .
badge :	Noun, common ;	Objective case, retained object of verb <i>should be given</i> .
honour :	Noun, abstract ;	Objective case, object of the preposition <i>of</i> .

The parsing of the pronoun will comprise its **KIND** (demonstrative, indefinite, etc.), its **FORM** (person, number, gender, and case), and its **RELATION** in the sentence.

Parse the pronouns in the following :

“*I* that speak to thee am he.” “Certain were there who swore to the truth of this.” “Who is he that cometh like an honoured guest?” “A title was given him.”

WORD.	CLASS.	FORM.	GRAMMATICAL RELATION.
I :	Pronoun, first personal ;	Singular, Masculine ; Nominative case,	Subject of the sentence.
that :	Pronoun, conjunctive ;	First person, to agree with its antecedent <i>I</i> ; Singular, Masculine, Nominative case,	Subject of the verb <i>speak</i> .
thee :	Pronoun, second personal ;	Singular, Objective case,	Object of preposition <i>to</i> .
he :	Pronoun, third personal ;	Singular, Masculine ; Nominative case,	Complement of verb <i>am</i> .
certain :	Pronoun, indefinite ;	Plural ; Nominative case,	Subject of the sentence.
who :	Pronoun, conjunctive ;	Third person, Plural, agreeing with antecedent <i>certain</i> ; Nominative case,	Subject of verb <i>swore</i> .
this :	Pronoun, demonstrative ;	Singular ; Objective case,	Object of preposition <i>of</i> .
who :	Pronoun, interrogative ;	Third person, Singular ; Nominative case,	Complement of the verb <i>is</i> .
he :	Pronoun, third personal ;	Singular, Masculine ; Nominative case,	Subject of the sentence.
that :	Pronoun, conjunctive ;	Third person, Singular, agreeing with antecedent <i>he</i> ; Nominative case,	Subject of verb <i>cometh</i> .
him :	Pronoun, third personal ;	Singular, Masculine ; Objective case,	Retained object of the verb <i>was given</i> .

Notice that some of these pronouns are of a certain definite gender, number, and case which may be seen in the form of the word ; whereas other words are said to be masculine, feminine, or neuter, and singular or plural on account of their reference. There is nothing

in the form of the Pronouns *I, that, thee, certain, who*, to indicate gender, nor in *that* or *who* to indicate number. The pronoun *he* is unmistakably third person, singular number, and masculine gender.

The student is advised that in parsing it is better to write out the technical terms in full than to abbreviate them unduly. If he uses abbreviations he should make sure that they are intelligible.

EXERCISES

1. Write the plural forms of the following nouns: *elf, church, loch, story, storey, beef, mastiff, life, wharf, solo, buffalo, phenomenon, criterion, oasis, ottoman, Ottoman, Dutchman, German, man-eater, soliloquy*.

2. Construct sentences to show how the following nouns should be used in the plural: *jealousy, benefaction, defence, appearance*.

3. Construct sentences to show that the following nouns have two meanings in the plural: *spectacle, height, light, manner, custom*.

4. Which of the following are singular: *eaves, ethics, summons, alms, news, tidings, means, riches, measles, politics*.

5. Write the possessive case of the following names: *St. James, Moses, the President of France, Mr. Jones, my friend the policeman*.

6. Mention the three ways in which the members of a sentence may be related to each other, and write sentences to illustrate.

7. Write sentences to illustrate the various uses of the noun.

8. *Show exactly the use of the italicised words in the following examples :*

- (a) Give thy *thoughts* no tongue, nor any unproportioned thought his *act*.
- (b) This chance was never offered *me* before.
- (c) One burnished *sheet* of living gold,
Loch Katrine lay before him rolled.
- (d) We pronounce them brave and honest *men*.
- (e) Two of them were *guests* like ourselves, both *men* of the north.
- (f) His daughter is like *him*.
- (g) They had been made *rebels* by ill-treatment.

9. Give examples of the noun as an adverbial adjunct, as a complement, as a nominative absolute, as an appositive, and as an indirect object.

10. *How many different objects are there in the following ?*

Make up your mind to forego the pleasure of eating that ice cream.

11. *Correct the following passages :*

- (a) Having got the epitaph copied fair, with an elegant frame, it was placed over the chimney-piece.
- (b) Upon visiting the house to investigate matters they received him courteously.
- (c) Pausing on the threshold a moment the firebells began ringing.
- (d) Having watered the horses, the bridles were put on.
- (e) Being only a few miles from home, and having taken a hearty meal our courage rose.

- (f) Having heard of the professor's skill as a lecturer on economics that subject began to have great attraction for me.
- (g) Preaching earnestly to his congregation their attention was excited by loud shouts which came from the street.
- (h) Turning in his chair to look out of the window the river could be seen winding away to the east.
- (i) Amused by the sight of so much activity my hurry was forgotten.
- (j) Discouraged by this incident the road seemed harder and longer than before.

12. Give a sentence in which a pronoun coincides in case with the noun for which it stands. Is this syntactical agreement?

13. Write sentences illustrative of the various uses of "*it*."

14. Parse all the Nouns and Pronouns in the following:

All who know that shire are very well acquainted with the merits and parts of Sir Roger. He is a gentleman that is very singular in his behaviour; but his singularities proceed from his good sense, and are contradictions to the manners of the world only as he thinks the world is in the wrong. However, this humour creates him no enemies, for he does nothing with sourness or obstinacy; and his being unconfined to modes and forms makes him the readier and more capable to please and oblige all who know him. When he is in town he lives in Soho Square. It is said he keeps himself a bachelor by reason he was crossed in love by a perverse beautiful widow of the next county to him. Before this disappointment Sir Roger was what you call a fine gentleman—had often supped with my Lord Rochester and Sir George Etherege, fought a duel upon his first coming to town, and kicked Bully Dawson in a public coffee-house for calling him youngster.

CHAPTER XI

THE QUALIFYING WORDS—THE ADJECTIVE

36. Classification and Definition.

THINGS belonging to the same group are distinguished from each other by certain circumstances of quality, quantity, or relation: "tall men;" "many trees;" "this pen." The qualities or attributes which thus distinguish things are denoted by words known as ADJECTIVES.

Different instances of an ACTION or an ATTRIBUTE are distinguished from each other by certain conditions of time, place, manner, or degree. "He arrived *early*;" "Come *here*;" "He works *well*;" "He *almost* succeeded;" "A *very* fine day." The conditions which thus distinguish different instances of an ACTION or an ATTRIBUTE are denoted by another class of words known as ADVERBS.

By the application of a Noun is meant the whole group of objects which it points out or identifies. The Noun *town* thus applies to every one of a very large number or group of things. What effect is produced when things belonging to the same group are distinguished from each other by the use of some word denoting quality, quantity, or relation? How, for example, does the use of the adjective *old* affect the application of the noun *town*? Clearly, the term *old town* applies to a smaller number of things than the term *town*. We can limit the number still further by the use of the adjective *famous*. The term *town* applies to many places; the term *famous old town* to a small number: the application of the noun has been modified by these adjectives.

An ADJECTIVE, then, is a word which goes with a Noun to modify the extent of its application, or more briefly, to modify its application. The name *town* stands for the sum of features common to a whole group of things. The term *old town* means all that the word *town* means and something more. The adjective *famous* still further adds to the meaning. Hence we may say that

An ADJECTIVE is a word which is used to add to the meaning and modify the application of a Noun.

An Adjective may be directly attached to its Noun, and is then said to be used attributively: as “a *tall* man,” “*few* words;” or it may be connected with a noun by the verb *be* or some other verb of incomplete predication, and is then said to be used predicatively: as “the man is *tall*;” “his words were *few*.” All adjectives have these two uses, the attributive use in which the connection between the thing and the attribute is implied or assumed, and the predicative use in which the connection is explicitly stated.

37. Kinds of Adjectives.

An Adjective may modify the application of a Noun by answering the question “*of what sort?*” Such Adjectives as *tall*, *eleven*, *strong*, *bright*, *brittle*, *red*, answer this question, and form a group called QUALITATIVE ADJECTIVES, or ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

The application of a Noun may be modified by an Adjective answering the question “*how much?*” or “*how many?*” The adjectives *one*, *ten*, *any*, *many*, *much*, *all*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *both*, *neither*, are examples of QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES, or ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY.

The question "*which?*" suggests certain words which may modify the application of a Noun. The Articles *a, an,* and *the,* along with *this, that, these, those,* the Possessives, *my, his, our,* etc., and the Ordinals, *first, second, third* etc., are called DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

QUALITATIVE ADJECTIVES denote a quality or an attribute. They modify the application of a Noun by mentioning a descriptive word which distinguishes the object from others of the same group, and are sometimes called descriptive adjectives. The participle is a descriptive adjective: "The bird is *flying*."

QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES denote how many or how much of that for which the Noun stands we have in mind. The Cardinal Numerals (*one, two, ten*) thus definitely answer the question "*how many?*" The Distributives, *each, every, either, neither,* give a definite answer to that question. *None* and *both* are also definite. Other words such as *many, any, few, half, several* are less definite. *All, some, half, most,* may answer the question "*how much?*" and when so used are sometimes called INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY. *Little, less,* and *least* when they denote size are descriptive or qualitative adjectives: "a *little* boy;" "the *less* evil of the two;" "not in the *least* degree." In such expressions as "He has *little* sense;" "We have *less* work to do to-day;" "He possesses the *least* power of all;" these adjectives are quantitative. *Big, great, small, large,* denote size and are therefore descriptive or qualitative adjectives.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES *point out* that of which we are speaking, by indicating its relation either to ourselves or to some other person or thing; and are sometimes called *relational adjectives*.

The INDEFINITE ARTICLE *an* or *a* is distinguished from the DEFINITE article *the*. The numeral *one* and the indefinite article *an* are closely related forms. The indefinite article indicates that we are speaking either of *some one*, or of *any one* of the things represented by the noun: "*A* house was burned last night." "*A* man should not do such things."

An is used before words beginning with a vowel sound or mute *h*, as "*an* apple," "*an* heir." This does not apply to the long sound of the vowel *u* ("*a* useful thing"). Before an aspirate when the accent is not on the first syllable we use *an*: "*an* historical event;" "*an* heroic action." But, "*a* hero," "*a* history of Greece."

The Definite Article *the* is used to designate among all the things denoted by a noun, that one, or those that we are speaking of. It marks out in a class one particular thing or certain particular things we have in mind.

The specifies some particular thing which we are obviously interested in at the moment (*the sun, the moon, the sky, the king, the government, the market, the Rockies, the St. Lawrence*); it signifies a class (as in the phrases *the lion, the ant, the rich*); it specifies by directing attention to a previous mention of the thing, ("There they sat, *the* man smoking his pipe, *the* woman knitting"), or by pointing to a proper name by which a general name is particularized ("*The Emperor Augustus, the River St. Lawrence, the Crown Matrimonial*"), or by directing attention to some attributive adjunct by which the individual is distinguished ("*the black horse,*" "*the parliament of Canada*").

NOTES

The student will usually have no difficulty in deciding whether a given word is an adjective or a noun. Words are classified on the ground of their use in the sentence. There can be no doubt as to the proper classification of the word *poor* in the following: "He is a poor man." "The poor ye have always with you." In the second sentence *poor* is a concrete noun. In the well-known phrases: "from the sublime to the ridiculous;" "the true, the beautiful, and the good," we have concrete nouns, *sublime, ridiculous, true, beautiful, good*, corresponding to the abstract nouns *sublimity, ridicule, truth, beauty, goodness*. In "a sublime subject," "a ridiculous idea," "a true story," "a beautiful picture," we have descriptive adjectives. Again, some words ordinarily used as adjectives may become so frequently used as nouns as to form plurals and possessives, *e.g.*, National names: *Canadian, Briton*; names denoting a sect or party: *Stoic, Liberal, Jacobite*; certain comparatives: *senior, junior, inferior, elder, better*; certain words used only in the plural: *vitals, eatables, moveables, valuables, greens, blues, sweets, intestines, etc.*

38. Inflection.

The Inflections of Adjectives in modern English are very few indeed. *This* and *that* with their plurals *these* and *those* represent all that is left of the ancient declension. Inflections marking gender and case have entirely disappeared from the Adjective. The Inflection of Comparison remains.

Many adjectives admit of degrees of comparison. That is to say, the modifying words *larger* and *largest* express

different degrees of the quality that is expressed by the word *large*. In many cases these different degrees are expressed by prefixing the words *more* and *most* to the adjective; and we have the expressions “a beautiful flower,” “a more beautiful flower,” “the most beautiful flower.”

In addition to the three degrees mentioned there are other degrees of the quality indicated by the Adjective as well as a considerable variety of species or sub-classes. The scale of degrees may run from the simple and positive degree of the adjective *cold* to the highest or superlative *coldest* through the general comparative *colder*, or through the qualified comparatives *perceptibly colder*, *slightly colder*, *much colder*, etc. The positive degree itself may run through a similar course of qualification. We may have the terms “*rather cold*,” “*quite cold*,” “*unmistakably cold*,” “*very cold*,” “*extremely cold*,” as well as the positive “*cold*.” Varieties of the quality may be expressed as follows: “*bitterly cold*,” “*pleasantly cold*,” “*unpleasantly cold*,” “*miserably cold*,” “*horribly cold*,” etc. It would be difficult to name all the possible degrees of comparison of Adjectives, and hence three only are taken: a POSITIVE degree, *good, strong, beautiful*; COMPARATIVE, *better, stronger, more beautiful*; SUPERLATIVE, *best, strongest, most beautiful*.

The POSITIVE DEGREE of an Adjective is the Adjective in its simple form used to express the presence of some quality or attribute in the thing we are speaking about.

The COMPARATIVE DEGREE of an Adjective is that form which is used to show that one thing possesses a certain quality or attribute in a greater degree than another thing.

The SUPERLATIVE DEGREE of an Adjective is that form which is used to show that a certain thing possesses the quality or attribute denoted by the Adjective in a greater degree than any other thing of several with which we compare it.

The Adjectives which admit of comparison are chiefly the Qualitative. Along with these some of the Indefinite Adjectives of Quantity may be mentioned.

There are many Adjectives which express ideas of such a nature that it would be absurd to speak in a literal way of a greater or less degree of the quality or attribute. The words *right*, *left*, *wrong*, *square*, *triangular*, *extreme*, *full*, *empty*, *infinite*, express the presence of the quality referred to in a full and complete sense which cannot be enlarged in fact or in imagination. Sometimes, however, adjectives of this kind are used in a loose and inexact way which gives rise to such expressions as: "a *more perfect* specimen," "the *extremest* limit," "the *chiefest* among ten thousand." Again, the superlative is sometimes used in an absolute sense when the thing spoken of is not compared with anything else, but simply regarded as possessing the attribute in a special or incomparable way: "*divinest* Melancholy;" "The *Most High*."

The addition of the endings *er* and *est* for comparison causes modifications in the spelling of certain adjectives:

(a) Adjectives ending in *e*. The comparative and superlative are formed by adding *r* and *st* respectively: brave, *braver*, *bravest*; handsome, *handsomer*, *handsomest*; able, *abler*, *ablest*.

(b) Adjectives ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i*; but if a vowel precedes no change takes place: happy, *happier*, *happiest*; greedy, *greedier*, *greediest*; gay, *gayer*, *gayest*; but shy, *shyer*, *shyest*.

(c) A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled to maintain the quantity; and final *e* preceded by an unaccented vowel is also sometimes doubled: glad, *gladder*, *gladdest*; hot, *hotter*, *hottest*; cruel, *crueller*, *cruellest*.

Many adjectives of more than two syllables and many of two syllables form the Comparative and Superlative by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* respectively to the Positive: virtuous, *more virtuous*, *most virtuous*; learned, *more learned*, *most learned*. Adjectives of two syllables in *y* (merry, *merrier*, *merriest*; holy, *holier*, *holiest*); in *er* (tender, *tenderer*, *tenderest*); in *ble* (able, *abler*, *ablest*); those accented on the last syllable (severe, *severer*, *severest*; polite, *politer*, *politest*); and some others (pleasant, *pleasanter*, *pleasantest*; narrow, *narrower*, *narrowest*) admit of the use of suffixes of comparison.

Some writers have used *more* and *most* with adjectives of one syllable: “*more strong*,” “*most sad*;” and others delight in such forms as “*unhopefullest*,” “*honourablest*,” “*virtuosest*,” “*pitifullest*,” “*beautifullest*,” “*properest*.” Considerations of euphony must decide these matters.

Double comparatives and superlatives are to be found in the older writers: “the *most straightest sect*;” “*most unkindest*;” “*worser*;” “*more braver*.”

A list of Adjectives irregularly compared is given in the Appendix.

39. Syntax.

AGREEMENT

Inflections marking gender and case have disappeared from the Adjective. The Demonstratives *this, that, these, those*, are the only Adjectives with inflections to indicate number. These four Adjectives agree in number with the Nouns they qualify; and the distributives, *each, every, either, neither*, being singular must be followed by singular verbs, pronouns, and nouns. "*This* horse;" "*these* men;" "*that* book;" "*those* dishes;" "*Every* man understands that *he* must be in *his* place;" "It is natural that *each* boy should consider *his* plan the best;" "*Neither* answer is correct." Such expressions as "*those* sort of people," "*these* kind of boots" are obviously wrong.

GOVERNMENT

The Adjectives *like, near, opposite, worth, worthy*, govern substantives in the objective case: "His brother is like him;" "He was near me at the time;" "The picture is opposite the window;" "Life is worth living;" "The thing is not worth it;" "He is not worthy the name."

The word *like* is evidently an Adjective as it admits of comparison and of being modified by adverbs of degree. We have: "more like," "most like;" "Fifteen? you look liker twenty;" "Earthly power doth then show likest God's;" "Something very like measles." The word may be used as a preposition: "What does he look like?" or as an adverb: "He ran like the wind." It should never be used as a subordinate conjunction.

Near and *opposite* may be used with or without the preposition *to*. *To* and *unto* are found after *like* in the early modern English. "How much unlike art thou to Portia!" "For ye are like unto whited sepulchres." *Worthy* is usually followed by *of*; *worth*, when used as an adjective, never.¹

ORDER

The expressions "the red rose," and "the rose is red" furnish type examples of the use of the adjective. In both examples the adjective *red* qualifies the noun *rose*. These types have been distinguished by calling the former an attributive and the latter a predicate adjective.

The Adjective used attributively usually precedes the Noun in ordinary prose.

(a) In poetical language an inverted order is frequently used: "Captains *courageous* whom death could not daunt;" "touched by this spirit *tender*;" "this aged man and *poor*." (b) Certain technical and stereotyped phrases are in the inverted form; "time *immemorial*," "church *militant*," "proof *positive*," "body *politic*," "malice *prepense*," "knight *errant*," "sign *manual*," "heir *apparent*." (c) Adjectives used as cognomens follow the noun: "Alexander the *Great*;" "William the *Silent*." (d) If the Adjective is accompanied by a modifying phrase it is convenient to take the inverted order: "hellish foes *confederate for his harm*;" "a man *equal to any position*;" "a matter *too important to be overlooked*;" "a case *illustrative of this fact*;" "the mountain *wooded to the peak*." (e) Where

¹ See Mason's Senior English Grammar, Chapter XXV.

emphasis is required the ordinary position of the adjective may be changed: "It was the most beautiful scene *imaginable*;" "the one thing *needful*;" "He acted like one *distraught*."

The Predicate Adjective follows the verb ordinarily although it may be placed in the beginning in solemn or poetical language: "*Blessed* are the meek;" "*Great* is Diana of the Ephesians;" "*Large* was his bounty and his soul sincere."

CHAPTER XII

THE QUALIFYING WORDS—THE ADVERB

40. Definition.

THINGS belonging to the same group are distinguished from each other by certain circumstances of quality, quantity, or relation: "*tall* men," "*many* trees," "*this* pen." The qualities or attributes which thus distinguish things are denoted, as we have seen, by ADJECTIVES.

Similarly, it was noted that different instances of an ACTION or an ATTRIBUTE are distinguished from each other by certain conditions of time, place, manner, or degree: "He arrived *early*;" "come *here*;" "he works *well*;" "he *almost* succeeded;" "a *very* fine day." The conditions which thus distinguish different instances of an ACTION or an ATTRIBUTE are denoted by another class of words called ADVERBS.

In the sentence "John runs" the action denoted by the verb *runs* is used in its full extent without any modification. In the sentence "John runs *rapidly*" the verb has been modified and its application changed. So in the expression "a famous man" the attribute denoted by the word *famous* is used in its full extent; whereas the application of the adjective may be changed by the use of the word *very*: "a *very* famous man."

An Adverb adds something to the meaning of the word it modifies, but does not alter the meaning of the word itself. "*Runs rapidly*" means all that *runs* means and

more, and thus limits the application of the verb to a certain restricted class of the actions denoted by the word *runs*. "John runs" is a broad statement which covers a considerable number of possible acts. In the sentence "John runs rapidly" the adverb limits the idea of John's action to a smaller number of instances. The expression "a very famous man" means all that is meant by the phrase "a famous man," and more. In thus adding to the meaning of *famous*, the adverb *very* restricts the application of the adjective *famous* to a smaller group. In the sentence "John runs more rapidly," something has been added to the meaning of the attribute denoted by *rapidly* by the modifying word *more*.

An Adverb is a word which adds to the meaning and limits the application of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

41. Kinds of Adverbs.

Adverbs may be classified on the basis of meaning.

1. ADVERBS OF TIME: *Now, then, after, before, immediately*.

2. ADVERBS OF PLACE: *Here, there, hither, thither, thence*.

3. ADVERBS OF MANNER: *Quickly, slowly, better, worse, well, ill*.

4. ADVERBS OF DEGREE: *Very, almost, quite, entirely, too*.

5. ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION AND NEGATION: *Not, no, nay, yea, aye*.

6. ADVERBS OF CAUSE AND CONSEQUENCE: *Therefore, wherefore, why, thus*.

Adverbs used in asking questions as *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, are sometimes called INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS of Time, Place, Manner, or Cause.

It is an old saying that when one is at a loss to know what to do with a word the best plan is to put it with the adverbs. Words ordinarily used as nouns or adjectives or combinations of these with prepositions may take on a special duty and sometimes become restricted to that use. "He ran *home*;" "he must *needs* go back to his friends;" "it is *all* important;" "they were weary *enough*." Such words as *afoot*, *aside*, *abroad*, *aright*, *athirst*, *afar*, *anew*, etc., are equivalent to adverbial adjuncts, the prefix *a* having taken the place of some preposition, usually *on*. With *by* (weakened to *be*) we get *betimes*, *besides*, *between* (by twain). Whenever a phrase in this way becomes contracted into a single word it is classed as an adverb.

Most of our adverbs are derived from adjectives by the addition of the suffix *ly* (*ly* = like). Most adjectives of quality admit of this change. A few come from adjectives and nouns with the suffix *wise* forming compounds such as *likewise*, *otherwise*, *lengthwise*, *nowise*, *crosswise*. Some adverbs of direction are formed by the addition of *ward* or *wards*: *toward* (towards); *upward*; *forward*.

Many words are used in the same form both as adjectives and adverbs: *much*, *more*, *little*, *fast*, *far*, *ill*, *sound*, *early*, *loud*, etc., and the adverbial use of an adjective in poetry and in dignified language is

frequent: "*Soft* sighed the flute;" "He played me *false*;" "*Exceeding* great and precious promises;" "It grew *wondrous* cold." It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a word is to be regarded as an adverb of this type or as a true adjective: "Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast;" "*Slow* and *sure* comes up the golden year;" "*Fair* laughs the moon and *soft* the zephyr blows."

The word *there* in such expressions as "There was silence for a time," "There shall be showers of blessing," "There is a Reaper whose name is Death," is a mere expletive.

Those adverbs that express degree are almost the only ones that modify other adverbs: "very angrily;" "almost here;" "*more* frequently;" "*quite* openly;" "*too* soon;" "*entirely* well." These are very freely used with adjectives also. They are less used with verbs, some of them being entirely unsuitable. *Very* and *too* do not go with verbs, nor even with participles unless they have been habitually used as adjectives. "*Very* fatigued," "*very* frightened," "*too* bored," are expressions to be avoided. We say "*very* or *too* weary," but "*very much*, or *too much* fatigued;" "*very* or *too* timid," but "*very much* or *too much* frightened."

There are cases where adverbs seem to modify other words than verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. "He stood just outside the door;" "a nail driven deep into the wood;" "far beyond the village." Here the adverbs *just*, *deep*, and *far* modify the words *inside*, *into*, and *beyond* respectively. These three words here used as

prepositions carry with them an adverbial force such as may clearly be observed in the expressions: "He stood just inside," "a nail driven deep," "the village is far beyond." It is the adverbial element suggested by these prepositions that the adverbs modify. Sometimes an adverb seems to modify a substantive as in the expressions: "after my return *home yesterday*," but it is rather the action suggested than the thing spoken of that we have in mind in such cases.

42. Comparison of Adverbs.

Some adverbs admit of degrees of comparison. There are the two forms, comparative and superlative, as in the adjective. When two instances of an action or an attribute differing from each other in some manner or degree are compared together the form which is used to denote that one which surpasses the other is called the COMPARATIVE DEGREE of the adverb. "John reads ill, but Thomas reads *worse*."

When several instances of an action or an attribute differing from each other in some manner or degree are compared together the form which is used to denote that one which surpasses all the rest is called the superlative degree of the adverb. "Of all the troops that regiment fought *best*." "He was *less* hungry than I, but John was the *least* hungry of the three."

Only a few words that are always Adverbs have a real comparison of their own: *soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest*; and in Modern English the comparative and superlative of adverbs are seldom formed by the

suffixes *er* and *est* except where they are the same in form as the corresponding adjectives. The usual mode is to prefix *more* and *most*: “proudly, *more* proudly, *most* proudly.”

43. Syntax of Adverbs.

Since the use of an Adverb is to modify some other word, care must always be taken to give it such a position in the sentence that there can be no doubt as to which word or words it is intended to modify. What exactly is meant in the following?

“John can work in the morning only.”

“John can only work in the morning.”

“Only John can work in the morning.”

Frequently, however, an Adverb may be shifted about in a sentence without changing its grammatical force. Such expressions as “to *completely* overcome,” “to *thoroughly* examine,” “to *wholly* misunderstand” are to be avoided wherever possible. Instances of the use of the split infinitive are to be found in the standard works of literature. Nevertheless the student will do well to avoid its use except in those cases where doubt might arise as to the word to which the adverb is related.

44. Parsing.

Parse the Adjectives and Adverbs in the following: “It was a warm day. Tom put on a light coat and went out. The sun was then shining very brightly but presently some clouds appeared. Soon these clouds covered the sky and the day grew darker. That night was the coldest we had.”

WORD.	CLASS.	GRAMMATICAL RELATION.
a :	Adjective, Demonstrative, (or Indefinite Article)	pointing out <i>day</i> .
warm :	Adjective, Qualitative,	qualifying <i>day</i> .
on :	Adverb, of Place,	modifying <i>put</i> .
light :	Adjective, Qualitative,	qualifying <i>coat</i> .
out :	Adverb, of Place,	modifying <i>went</i> .
the :	Adjective, Demonstrative, (or Definite Article)	pointing out <i>sun</i> .
then :	Adverb, of Time,	modifying <i>was shining</i> .
very :	Adverb, of Degree,	modifying <i>brightly</i> .
brightly :	Adverb, of Manner,	modifying <i>was shining</i> .
presently :	Adverb, of Time,	modifying <i>appeared</i> .
some :	Adjective, Quantitative,	qualifying <i>clouds</i> .
soon :	Adverb, of Time,	modifying <i>covered</i> .
these :	Adjective, Demonstrative,	pointing out <i>clouds</i> .
darker :	Adjective, Qualitative, (Comparative Degree)	in the Predicate describing <i>day</i> .
that :	Adjective, Demonstrative,	pointing out <i>night</i> .
coldest :	Adjective, Qualitative, (Superlative Degree)	in Predicate describing <i>night</i> .

EXERCISES

1. *Form sentences or phrases in which the following adjectives are placed after the nouns they qualify : divine, elect, everlasting, presumptive, royal, sinister, total, triumphant, militant, spiritual.*

2. *Form adjectives from the following nouns : care, courage, fire, man, hate, sky, wretch, fate, muscle, promise, planet, element, demon, despot, botany, Canada.*

3. *Use "a" or "an" before each of the following expressions : university, uninteresting book, union, onion, uniform, universally received opinion, umpire, eulogy, European, year, urn, hospital, habitual drunkard, hotel, hour, honest man, house, history, historical lecture, hero, heroic deed, hypocritical action, harangue, usurper*

4. *Give reasons for using or omitting to use the article in the following:* 1. Wellington, soldier and statesman, died in 1852. 2. A white and black cow were in the field. 3. A white and black cow was in the field. 4. I saw there the president, secretary, and treasurer of the society. 5. He is president and manager of the company. 6. He deserves the name of scholar. 7. What kind of tree is that? 8. They killed a citizen and householder of the town. 9. He had few friends. 10. He got little credit for his work

5. Use the words *much* and *many*, and *little* and *few* in sentences to illustrate the difference between quantity and number

6. Use also the words *enough*, *some*, *no*, *all*, and *any* for the same purpose

7. Show by illustrative sentences that (*a*) a noun or pronoun in the possessive (*b*) an adjective phrase (*c*) an adjective clause (*d*) a gerund (*e*) a participle (*f*) an infinitive may stand in the attributive relation to a noun

8. *Explain: the more the merrier, all the quicker, none the worse, quite the contrary, at the best, just the same, none the less.*

9. *What is the nature of the italicised words in the following: "a few books;" "a good many trees;" "He had something the manner of a Southerner;" "The Scheld, almost exclusively a Belgian river;" "thrice the usual fare."*

10. *What do you think of the following: "Eve was the fairest of her daughters;" "This principle is of all others the most important."*

11. *Write sentences to illustrate the use of the following words as adverbs and as adjectives: any, all, enough, half, ill, much, like, less, the, very, right*

12. *Explain the use of the italicised words in the following: "He walked a mile;" "The girls study two hours in the*

morning ;” “ He jumped *six feet* ;” “ He doesn’t care a *rap* ;” “ The book cost *two dollars* ;” “ The train went *a mile a minute* .”

13. *Parse all the adjectives and adverbs in the following passages* : 1. Few and short were the prayers we said. 2. Dear happy never-to-be-forgotten Christmas. 3. We found the way easy. 4. We found the way easily. 5. What is read twice is commonly better understood than what is transcribed. 6. The wind blew fresh. 7. Never have I seen such strength so easily exerted. 8. You had better go home now ; you have been working too hard to-day. 9. We held fast as long as we could, but we felt our strength slowly ebbing away. 10. The room was uncomfortably warm. 11. A great cloud rising in the west and north, a vast, slaty-blue, seamless dome, silent, portentous, with edges of silvery, frosty light.

CHAPTER XIII

THE VERB

A VERB is a word by means of which we can say something about some person or thing

Our minds possess a certain power known as judgment. This power of judgment is the essential feature of the minds of all human beings. Judgments find full and complete expression in sentences. We say that language "grows out of thought," that thought is "clothed in language," that language is "the vehicle of thought." It is difficult to say exactly what the relation between thought and language is, but we know that it is a very intimate one. Whatever its true nature may be, the relation between thought and language in general is the same as that which exists between the judgment and the sentence in particular.

It is generally agreed that the judgment naturally expresses itself in the form of a sentence. A sentence claims to be true, and therefore calls for belief.

The Verb is a necessity in any attempt to say something that calls unmistakably for belief. The expression "the red rose" does not make a claim upon anyone's belief. The sentence, "The rose is red" asks us to believe something.

A Verb tells us with reference to what is spoken about that it is in some state or condition, or that it does something, or that something has been done to it: "The grass is green;" "He *strikes* the ball;" "The house *was burned*."

45. Classification.

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

Compare the following verbs :

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.
(a)		(b)	
mend	mended	arise	arose
kill	killed	draw	drew
love	loved	slay	slew
dwell	dwelt	sink	sank
bend	bent	win	won

In the first group the Past Tense is formed by adding *d* or *ed* or *t* to the Present Tense. Verbs which form the Past Tense by an external change, the addition of a letter or syllable to the stem, are called **WEAK VERBS**.

In the second group the Past Tense is formed, not by an *addition* to the word, but by a change in the vowel sound of the root. Verbs which form the past tense simply by an internal change are known as **STRONG VERBS**. This class includes the most commonly used and the oldest verbs in the language, and is sometimes called the **OLD CONJUGATION**.

When we know the Principal Parts, that is, the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and the Past Participle of a Verb, we can readily construct any form we may require. A list of strong and weak verbs is given in the Appendix. Meantime the Principal Parts of some of each kind are given here.

VERBS OF THE STRONG CONJUGATION

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
arise	arose	arisen
blow	blew	blown
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
lie	lay	lain
ring	rang	rung
strive	strove	striven
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
wring	wrung	wrung

VERBS OF THE WEAK CONJUGATION

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft	bereft
catch	caught	caught
dream	dreamed	dreamed
lay	laid	laid
speed	sped	sped
work	wrought	wrought

The Strong or Old Conjugation includes only such verbs as belong to the original English stock. These verbs are monosyllabic words, except a few which have prefixes.

The Weak Conjugation comprises a number of words of the old stock, some which once belonged to the Strong group, all verbs of Norman-French or foreign origin, and all newly-formed verbs.

The conflict between the two modes of formation may be seen in the existence of rival forms. We have *digged*, *dug*; *shined*, *shone*; *thrived*, *throve*; *waked*, *woke*. In these cases the present tendency seems to be in favour of the old conjugation.

Certain verbs which formerly belonged to the strong conjugation now have weakened forms which have to some extent displaced the others: *climbed*, *clomb*; *crowed*, *crew*; *helped*, *holp*; *shaped*, *shapen*; *shaved*, *shaven*; *melted*, *molten*; *swelled*, *swollen*.

The participle is an adjective derived from a verb, and in some cases one of the rival forms, whether these are of the same or of a different conjugation, is given over to special use as an adjective, the other being retained as the participle proper. "*Cloven* foot;" "*graven* image;" "*molten* brass;" "*rotten* timber;" "*a drunken* man;" "*ill-gotten* gains;" "*bounden* duty;" "*a lighted* candle;" "*roast* meat;" "*on bended* knee." The other forms *cleft*, *engraved*, *melted*, *rotted*, *drunk*, *got*, *bound*, *lit*, *roasted*, *bent* are used as participles.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE

Among the following sentences there are some which can be changed to the Passive form and some which cannot be so changed. *Distinguish these* :

He sat by the window hour after hour.

The fellow soon ran away.

The swift skiff soon overtook the raft.

He vanished in the distance.

The prisoner stole a watch.

The sun melted the ice.

The parents rejoice in the success of the boy.

In the sentences which do not admit of being changed to the Passive form there is no Object. In such cases the verb expresses either a state or condition, or else an action which is not directed towards an Object; and is called **INTRANSITIVE**.

In sentences which admit of being changed to the Passive form there is an Object. The verb in such sentences indicates an action directed towards some object; and is therefore called **TRANSITIVE**.

A **TRANSITIVE VERB** (Latin *transire*, to go across) is one which denotes an action or feeling which is directed towards some object, as "He lifted the burden;" "His friends admire him."

An **INTRANSITIVE VERB** is one which denotes a state or condition, or an action or feeling which is not directed towards an object: as "He is happy;" "He became wealthy;" "They are rejoicing;" "The boys ran rapidly by."

It must be borne in mind that words are arranged in classes on the basis of their use.

Observe the following:

The little lad shook with terror. The child speaks already.

The little lad shook the tree. The child speaks several languages.

It is clear that the verbs *shook* and *speaks* are intransitive in the first two sentences and transitive in the others.

Besides these two principal classes of verbs three other kinds may be noticed.

1. *Verbs of Incomplete Predication.* In transitive and intransitive verbs the predicate may be called complete. When we say "John drinks," we make clear at once the kind of predication that is made about the subject. We may go on to say what he drinks, or why, or when, or how. But the verb of incomplete predication makes no sense unless followed by a noun, an adjective, or an infinitive. "He is," "She seems," "They became," "John can," are forms which convey no definite meaning unless we add some other word or words: thus, "He is honest;" "She seems happy;" "They became soldiers;" "John can run." The verbs *be*, *seem*, *remain*, *become*, are sometimes called Copulative verbs.

2. *Notional and Auxiliary Verbs.* A word may be employed as a verb to express a meaning of its own, or as part of a verb-phrase to help to make different forms of the verb. Thus in "I have a garden," *have* expresses a certain idea or meaning, that of possession, whereas in "I have walked about for an hour," *have* is merely an auxiliary. "I do my work in the early morning" illustrates the use of *do* as a notional verb; "I do not believe the story," illustrates its use as an auxiliary. In "You may go out for a walk," *may* denotes the idea of permission. In "Give him a book that he may amuse himself," *may* is an auxiliary.

3. *Impersonal Verbs.* Verbs used with *it* as subject when *it* does not represent a definite idea, but only helps to express the thought that something is happening are called *impersonal*. "*It is fine weather*;" "*It grows dark*." In earlier stages of the language there were many impersonal verbs without any subject expressed. *Methinks*, *methought*, *meseems*, *meseemed*, still survive.

CHAPTER XIV

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB

46. Voice.

In previous exercises we have noticed the difference between ACTIVE and PASSIVE forms of sentences.

“The cat killed the mouse” is an Active form.

“The mouse was killed by the cat” is a Passive form.

Observe that the sentence in which the doer of the action is represented by the subject is the Active form. The verb then is said to be in the ACTIVE VOICE.

Observe also that the sentence in which the object of the action is represented by the subject is the Passive form. The verb then is said to be in the Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice is a form which concerns Transitive verbs, since none but Transitive verbs take an object. We may say, therefore, that a Transitive verb is in the Active Voice when the subject of it represents the doer of the action; and in the Passive Voice when the subject represents the receiver of the action.

In changing from the active to the passive form the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. “Thomas struck the ball” is an active form, and when changed to the passive becomes “The ball was struck by Thomas.” But as we have seen there may be two objects in the sentence, the direct and the indirect. We are at liberty to take either object and make it the subject of the passive verb: “I told him the news,” becomes either “He was told the news by me,” or “The news was told him by me.”

Further, we are able to turn to the passive form certain complex expressions containing a verb in the active voice followed by a preposition with its object. "He spoke to the man" becomes "The man *was spoken to*." "They took care of him," "He *was taken care of*."

Some verbs active in form are used with a passive meaning. "The meat cuts tough." "These goods sell rapidly." "This house rents easily." The meaning, of course, is that "the meat is tough when it is cut," that "the goods are sold rapidly," and that "the house is rented easily." Again, we say that a thing *feels* soft, or *tastes* sweet, when as a matter of fact the thing cannot feel or taste. We touch or taste things and experience certain sensations.

There are two features to be observed in the formation of the Passive Voice, namely that the verb-phrase in the passive form is composed of (a) a past participle, and (b) some part of the verb *be* as an auxiliary.

Examine these sentences :

The cab was drawn by four horses.

The trees were shaken by the wind.

The carriage is driven by a young lady.

The principal parts of these verbs are :

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
draw	drew	drawn
shake	shook	shaken
drive	drove	driven

Was, were, and is are parts of the verb *be*.

Point out the various parts of the verb *be* in the following passive forms :

"I am forced to the conclusion." "We are prevented from doing it." "He has been protected from every danger." "They will be properly instructed." "He had been imprisoned." "These hats have been worn for a long time." "A great battle was won there."

The verb *be* is used as an auxiliary in forming tenses as well as in forming the passive voice. The student will, therefore, bear in mind that the sign of the passive voice is not the verb *be* but the past participle passive which follows it.

The verbs in "I am come," "he is gone" are not passive. *Come* and *go* are intransitive verbs. *Come* and *gone* are participles, but not passive participles.

47. Mood.

There are three ways or modes of *representing* an event or a circumstance. These three ways or modes correspond to three ways of thinking about events and circumstances. The speaker may regard an event or state of things as actual, as a fact quite independent of his own thoughts about it. Or he may regard an event or state of things not as actual but as possible or desirable. Or again, he may will and determine that the imagined or desired event shall become real and actual.

To the first mentioned way of thinking corresponds a way of speaking known as the INDICATIVE MOOD: "He is here;" "I will write him a letter;" "He has fallen;" "Thy will is done;" "Angels and ministers of grace are defending us." These examples represent the action or circumstance denoted by the verb as an actual fact.

To the second way of thinking corresponds a way of speaking known as the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD: "O that he were here;" "If he were here I would ask him;" "I will help him lest he fall;" "Thy will be done;" "Angels and ministers of grace, defend us." These represent an event or circumstance not as an actual fact but as a supposition, or a desire that some imagined event may become real.

The IMPERATIVE MOOD corresponds to the third way of thinking. "Come here;" "Put the question in writing;" "Go to his assistance;" "Do your duty;" "Defend yourself." These represent the speaker's will and determination that the person addressed shall bring to pass and make real and actual an imagined or desired action or event.

The first of these three ways of thinking is the most usual, and hence the Indicative Mood is the most frequently employed. It is used to express what is (or is assumed to be) a fact, and in asking questions of fact. The verbs in the following sentences are all in the Indicative Mood:

"Who is in charge of this office?" "I do not know who is in charge."

"Jones is in charge." "If Jones is in charge, all is well" (that is "Assuming as true the theory of Jones being in charge, all is well").

It is possible to express doubt and uncertainty by the help of an adverb, as in the expression "Perhaps it will rain," but the verb here is Indicative.

The Subjunctive Mood is sometimes called the Mood of Subjective Predication to distinguish it from the

Indicative, the Mood of Objective Predication. The term *Objective* is applied to what exists or what happens as a fact independent of one's own thought. That which exists in the mind as a conception merely is called *Subjective*. We recognize this distinction in practice. We draw a line between the fixed and settled order of things belonging to the real external world which we regard as the same for everybody, and the more or less unstable and changing conceptions which we build and rebuild in our private mental life as individuals. We are careful to distinguish between facts and fancies in the management of our affairs and in the conduct of life.

Not all of our conceptions and fancies, however, are expressed by the Subjunctive Mood. Reader and novelist alike know the character and deeds of the hero to be purely fanciful. But these matters are for the moment regarded and treated as actual facts, and the story goes forward in the indicative mood. Again, it is usual in putting an argument or in stating a case to employ the indicative mood. "We will assume that the thing was done on Wednesday. Now if that is so, etc."; "If the ship reaches port on time, we shall get home by the night train." In these and similar instances the idea is taken as actual fact for the purposes of the moment.

When the speaker, however, not only conceives an event or a state of things as a supposition or as something to be desired, but also treats it as such and not as a matter of fact, his way of thinking is represented by a sentence whose verb is said to be in the Subjunctive Mood.

The Subjunctive is employed

1. In petition, to denote a state of things which we wish to become real: "Thy kingdom *come*."

2. In clauses denoting the purport of a wish or command.
“The sentence is that the prisoner *be imprisoned* for life;” “My desire is that the bill *be passed* ;” “It was decided that the court *should rise*.”
3. In clauses expressing a supposition or desire contrary to fact : “*Had* he *told* all he knew nothing could have saved the prisoner ;” “If he *were* here he could help you ;” “O that it *were* possible ;” “I wish it *were* in my power to help you ;” “I feel as though I *were being borne* bodily through the air.”
4. In clauses denoting purpose : “See that all *be* in eadiness ;” “Govern well thy appetites lest sin *surprise* thee ;” “Lest she *forget* her duty.”

A glance at these examples of the Subjunctive Mood shows that the verb is generally though not always preceded by a conjunction *if, that, lest, though*, etc.; but the conjunction is not part of the mood, nor is the mood always used after these conjunctions.

48. Tense.

Compare the following sentences :

- “The wind blows ;” “John runs ;” “Mary walks.”
“The wind blew ;” “John ran ;” “Mary walked.”

What exactly is the difference between *blow* and *blew* ; or between *runs* and *ran* ; or between *walks* and *walked* ? It is a difference in form which indicates a difference in the time of the action.

Compare the following :

- “He is writing.” “He has written.”

Both refer to Present time, but the former represents the action as going on, and the latter represents the action as complete, or finished, or perfect.

Compare :

(a) "He was writing" and "He had written."

(b) "He will be writing" and "He will have written."

Here again we have the contrast between incomplete action and completed action.

Observe the following :

"He writes ;" "He wrote ;" "He will write."

In these sentences the time of the action is clear ; but the question of the completeness or incompleteness of the action is left undecided or indefinite.

TENSES are varieties of form in verbs or verb-phrases which indicate partly the TIME of an action or event, and partly the completeness or incompleteness of the event at the time referred to.

Every action or event must take place in present time, in past time, or in future time. Verbs have distinction of Tense to denote Present, Past, and Future.

Again there are three ways of describing an action. We may represent it as going on at the time referred to ; or we may represent the action as complete or finished at the time referred to ; or we may leave the question of completeness indefinite.

This makes in all nine Tenses. They are called Primary Tenses and may be exhibited in a Table :

TIME.	IMPERFECT.	PERFECT.	INDEFINITE.
Present	I am writing	I have written	I write
Past	I was writing	I had written	I wrote
Future	I shall be writing	I shall have written	I shall write

The corresponding Passive forms are as follows :

TIME.	IMPERFECT.	PERFECT.	INDEFINITE.
Present	I am being taught	I have been taught	I am taught
Past	I was being taught	I had been taught	I was taught
Future	I shall be being taught	I shall have been taught	I shall be taught

In addition to the PRIMARY TENSES there are three Secondary Forms known as PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSES :

Present Perfect Progressive : I have been writing.

Past Perfect Progressive : I had been writing.

Future Perfect Progressive : I shall have been writing.

FORMATION OF TENSES

The PRESENT INDEFINITE and the PAST INDEFINITE in the Active Voice are the only two tenses formed by INFLECTION : "He writes;" "He walked."

The IMPERFECT tenses are formed by combining some part of the verb *be* with the Present Participle : "I am (was, shall be) writing."

The PERFECT tenses are formed by combining some part of the verb *have* with the Past Participle : "I have (had, shall have) written."

The FUTURE tenses are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, followed by the infinitive mood : "I *shall*, you *will*, he *will* write."

All moods and tenses of the Passive Voice are formed by means of auxiliary verbs, the Passive Voice of a verb consisting of its past participle preceded by various moods and tenses of the verb *be*.

USES OF THE TENSES

The PRESENT INDEFINITE Tense is used :

1. To express an action now going on : “ *Here comes the rain.* ”
2. To state what frequently or habitually takes place or is universally true : “ *He goes to town every morning.* ” “ *Water boils at 212°.* ”
3. To express a past action in lively narration (the so-called Historic Present) “ *The soldiers press steadily on and the day is won.* ”
4. To express a future action : “ *We start for home to-morrow.* ”

The PAST INDEFINITE is used :

1. With the force of the Imperfect : “ *They danced while I played.* ”
2. To express what frequently or habitually happened : “ *They ate plum puddings at Christmas and danced about the may-pole in the summer.* ”

The auxiliary *do* is used in the Present and Past Indefinite Tenses, sometimes simply to replace the Present and Past Indefinite :

“ *You all do know this mantle.* ”

“ *They did set bread before him and he did eat.* ”

It is sometimes used for emphasis :

“ *The horses do travel.* ” “ *It did rain.* ”

It is also used in Interrogative and in Negative sentences :

“ *He does not hear.* ” “ *Do you hear me ?* ”

49. Number and Person.

The Verb like the Noun has two numbers, Singular and Plural.

We have distinguished Pronouns of the First Person, Pronouns of the Second Person, and Pronouns of the Third Person. In Verbs a corresponding distinction is made. A Verb which agrees with a subject in the First Person is said to be in the First Person, a Verb which agrees with a Subject in the Second Person is said to be in the Second Person, and so for the Third Person.

CHAPTER XV

THE NON-FINITE VERB

50. Other Forms of the Verb.

Observe the italicised words in the following :

“*To obey* is better than sacrifice.” “*Walking* is a pleasant exercise.” “*Joining* with the crowd he soon disappeared.” “*Leaving* the road we turned off into the woods.” “He likes *reading*.” “They like to *skate*.” “*Crying* with rage John rushed at his assailant.”

Analyse these sentences :

ATTRIBUTE.	SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	COMPLEMENT.	OBJECT.	ADVERBIAL MODIFIER.
	To obey	is	better than sacrifice.		
	Walking	is	a pleasant exercise.		
Joining with the crowd	he	disappeared			soon.
Leaving the road	we	turned			off into the woods.
	He	likes		reading.	
	They	like		to skate.	
Crying with rage	John	rushed			at his assailant.

It is evident that these words are verbs since they express action. The student will also notice that three of them are participles. *Joining*, *leaving*, and *crying* are at once adjectives and verbs, or more accurately, they are adjectives derived from verbs. They stand in the attributive relation to *he*, *we*, and *John* respectively.

To obey and *walking* are subjects, and *reading* and *to skate* are objects in their respective sentences, and therefore do the work of a substantive.

To obey and *to skate* are called Infinitives.

Walking and *reading* are called Gerunds.

Select the Infinitives, Gerunds, and Participles in the following :

1. To drive a nail straight is sometimes difficult. 2. Learning a foreign language requires patience. 3. To err is human. 4. He likes playing billiards. 5. Mixing mortar is hard work. 6. They love to see the flaming forge. 7. He likes studying mathematics. 8. To give prizes encourages hard work. 9. They refuse to play. 10. The spider, spinning his web, attracted the attention of Bruce. 11. Cracking nuts injures the teeth. 12. I recollect throwing it away. 13. His mother, hearing the noise rushed in. 14. The regiment moving rapidly forward occupied the hill.

Observe another use of the Infinitive. It may be used as a Noun, as in the previous sentences. It may also be used for another purpose.

What is its work in the following sentences :

1. We go to school to learn. 2. The lawyer rose to address the court. 3. He was quick to see the point. 4. He was willing to try anything. 5. He came to see me. 6. We are anxious to go. 7. A charge to keep I have. 8. Here is a house to let.

Note carefully the connection of these Infinitives: *go* to learn; *rose* to address; *quick* to see; *willing* to try; *came* to see; *anxious* to go; *charge* to keep; *house* to let.

An Infinitive then may be used as a noun, as an adverb, or as an adjective.

The three Verb-forms, the Infinitives, the Gerund, and the Participles are in a class by themselves. They denote actions without reference to number, person, or time.

Where an action is restricted or limited in respect to person or number: as when we say "He walks" (third person, singular number); "We are walking" (first person, plural number), the verb is said to be **FINITE**. When an action is unrestricted or unlimited in these respects, as in the expressions "to walk," "walking;" such forms are said to belong to the **NON-FINITE** or **INFINITE** verb.

51. The Participle.

A Participle is a verbal Adjective. It differs from the ordinary Adjective in that the active participle derived from a transitive verb takes an object: "The spider, spinning his web, attracted the attention of the King." In this sentence *spinning* not only qualifies the noun *spider*, but also takes an object, *web*.

The Participle in *ing* is active, and is usually called the Present Participle. *Observe the following:*

"Look at him, *armed* to the teeth."

"The army *driven* from its position lost courage."

The Past Participles in the above, *armed*, and *driven*, are in the attributive relation to *him* and *army* respectively. They are derived from transitive verbs, and are here used as Passive participles to denote an action no longer in progress.

The forms of the Participles are :

	TRANSITIVE VERBS.	INTRANSITIVES.
Present	seeing ; being seen	coming
Past	(absent) ; seen	come
Past Perfect	having seen ; having been seen	having come

The expressions *going to see*, *about to come*, supply the want of a Future Participle.

USES OF PARTICIPLES

1. *In the formation of tenses* : The tenses of the passive voice are formed by combining the verb *be* and the past participle : "I am driven ;" "I was driven ;" "He will be driven," etc. The imperfect tenses of the active are formed by combining the verb *be* and the present participle : "I am writing ;" "I was writing," etc. The perfect tenses of the active are formed by combining the verb *have* and the past participle : "I have driven ;" "We have gone."
2. *As predicate adjectives* : "His antics were *surprising* ;" "Out of the houses the rats came *tumbling* ;" "*All-armed* I ride whate'er betide."
3. *As attributes* : "Dear as *remember'd* kisses after death ;" "The two brothers and their *murdered* man rode past fair Florence ;" "The *driving* cloud rack."
4. *In the absolute construction* : "The rain *having ceased*, the day was delightful."

52. The Infinitive.

We have just seen that the infinitive may be used as a noun, or as the equivalent of an adjective, or with the force of an adverb.

Its use as a Noun :

1. As subject of a verb : "*To work* hard is the proper thing."
2. As object of a verb : "I love *to hear* the rain."
3. As complement : "To be good is *to be* happy."
4. As object of a preposition : "He cares for nothing save *to escape* punishment."
5. As an appositive : "He formed a resolution *to defend* the post with his life."

The infinitive may be used with the force of an Adjective :

"There was no one *to help* me ;" "A house *to let* ;"
"Nothing *to do*."

It may be used as the equivalent of an Adverb :

"I am ready *to faint* ;" "I went *to see* him ;" "Help me *to do* this ;" "I rejoice *to hear* it ;" "He is easy *to manage* ;" "This is too significant *to be omitted*." "He is worthy *to be loved*."

The infinitive sometimes appears without the preposition *to*. The verbs *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, *let*, *dare*, *do*, *bid*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *need*, are followed by an infinitive without *to*.

"He may (can, must, etc.) *do* it ;" "We saw it *shake* ;"
"Bid me *discourse* ;" "Let us *go*."

The use of the infinitive (accompanied by the preposition *to*) with many verbs, adjectives, nouns, and adverbs to denote interest, purpose, object, consequence, and the like is very common, and the form is known as the Gerundial Infinitive:

“I came *to see* him;” “A house *to let*;” “He that hath ears *to hear*;” “That is *to say*;” “He commanded the bridge *to be lowered*.”

53. The Gerund.

A GERUND is used:

1. As subject of a verb: “*Losing* his fortune embittered him.”
2. As object of a verb: “He loves *making* mischief.”
3. As object of a preposition: “I am fond of *studying* mathematics.”

Compound forms of the Gerund may be formed by combination with the verbs *be* and *have*:

“He was accused of *having disclosed* the secret;” “He is desirous of *being admitted*;” “He received credit for *having been injured* in defence of his country.”

The GERUND is to be distinguished from the VERBAL NOUN. The chief mark of the former is that it may be followed by a direct object. The Verbal Noun cannot take a direct object, but requires the preposition *of*: “We frightened the wolves by *firing* our guns.” *Firing* is a Gerund. “The *firing* of guns was heard.” *Firing* here is a Verbal Noun.

Other points of difference between the two are that the Verbal Noun may be preceded by an article or a

demonstrative or a numeral adjective, it may be used in the plural, and may be qualified by an adjective; whereas the Gerund is not preceded by an article or demonstrative adjective, cannot be used in the plural, and if modified is modified by an adverb.

The following sentences will illustrate these points :

“The *crying* of children waked me.” “These *doublings* and *twistings* confused me and annoyed me.” “A loud *barking* was heard.”

In these instances of the Verbal Noun the article (definite and indefinite), the demonstrative, and the adjective appear, and the use of the plural is illustrated.

The expression : “The dog attracted my attention by *barking* loudly” is an example of the use of an adverb with a Gerund.

The Gerund can form compounds : “*Swimming-bath* ;” “*fishing-rod*.” Both the Gerund and the Verbal Noun may be preceded by a possessive noun or pronoun. *Making* and *passing* are Gerunds in the following :

“The trouble was caused by his making public what had been entrusted to him.” “We read of Cæsar’s passing the Rubicon.”

The word *riding* in the next examples is a Verbal Noun :

“My friend’s graceful riding was much admired. “Your riding has not improved very much.”

CHAPTER XVI

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

54. Example of Conjugation.

All the forms of the verb used to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person may be set out together in order; and such a collection of inflections and combinations is called a Conjugation. As an example take a few of the forms of the verb *smite*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Active Voice

PRESENT INDEFINITE.		PRESENT PERFECT.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st. I smite	We smite	I have smitten	We have smitten
2nd. Thou smitest	You smite	Thou hast smitten	You have smitten
3rd. He smites	They smite	He has smitten	They have smitten

PRESENT IMPERFECT.		PRESENT PERFECT OF CONTINUED ACTION.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st. I am smiting	We are smiting	I have been smiting	We have been smiting
2nd. Thou, etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

FUTURE INDEFINITE.		FUTURE PERFECT.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st. I shall smite	We shall smite	I shall have smitten	We shall have smitten

Passive Voice

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.		PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st. I am smitten	We are smitten	I have been smitten	We have been smitten

The student should try his hand at constructing the remaining forms without consulting the tables which are given in full in the Appendix. In the meantime the foregoing indicates the method of conjugating the verb.

55. The Use of Auxiliaries.

The distinctions of Voice, Mood, and Tense are marked by means of endings and by the use of auxiliaries.

Our language was at one time well supplied with endings, but at present there are not many left. In the simple tenses of the finite verb there are *est*, and *s*, "thinkest," "thinks;" "strikest," "strikes;" and in the participles and gerunds we have *ing* and *en*, "thinking" and "stricken."

In the compound tenses auxiliaries are used. The verb-phrases of the compound tenses sometimes consist of three auxiliaries along with the principal verb.

BE, HAVE, SHALL, WILL, MAY, DO are the auxiliaries employed in the formation of the compound tenses of the verb. Perhaps the most important of these is the verb BE.

THE VERB BE

The Principal Parts are—Present, *am*; Past, *was*; Past Participle, *been*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.		PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st. I am	We are	I have been	We have been
2nd. Thou art	You are	Thou hast been	You have been
3rd. He is	They are	He has been	They have been

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st.	I was	We were
2nd.	Thou wast or wert	You were
3rd.	He was	They were

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
	I had been	We had been
	Thou hadst been	You had been
	He had been	They had been

FUTURE INDEFINITE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st.	I shall be	We shall be
2nd.	Thou wilt be	You will be
3rd.	He will be	They will be

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
	I shall have been	We shall have been
	Thou wilt have been	You will have been
	He will have been	They will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT INDEFINITE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st.	(If) I be	We be
2nd.	Thou be	You be
3rd.	He be	They be

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
	I have been	We have been
	Thou have been	You have been
	He have been	They have been

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st.	I were	We were
2nd.	Thou wert	You were
3rd.	He were	They were

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
	I had been	We had been
	Thou hadst been	You had been
	He had been	They had been

PAST INDEFINITE TENSE.

(Secondary form when not preceded by a conjunction).

	Singular.	Plural.
1st.	I should be	We should be
2nd.	Thou wouldst be	You would be
3rd.	He would be	They would be

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

(Secondary form).

	Singular.	Plural.
	I should have been	We should have been
	Thou wouldst have been	You could have been
	He would have been	They would have been

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Singular <i>Be</i> (<i>thou</i>).		Plural <i>Be</i> (<i>you</i>).	
Non-finite forms :	Infinitives, to be	to have been.	
	Gerunds, being	having been.	
	Participles, being	having been, been.	

The Verb BE is important both as an Auxiliary verb and as a Principal verb. Observe the following instances of its use as an Auxiliary :

1. "You were defeated." "Thou art doomed." "He was upset." "I am injured." "He is delayed." "We shall be delayed."
2. "I am coming." "He is drinking."

In the first group the various forms of the verb *be* (*is, am, was, were, art*) are employed in the formation of the Passive Voice.

In the second group they are used in the formation of Tenses.

HAVE is important both as a Principal Verb and as an Auxiliary. It is used both in the Active Voice and in the Passive to form the Perfect Tenses :

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
Present Perfect	I have told.	I have been told.
Future Perfect	I shall have told	I shall have been told.
Past Perfect	I had told	I had been told.

HAVE is used as a Notional Verb in the sense of *possess*. "He has money." "He has had more money than he needed."

SHALL and WILL form the future tenses of the Indicative both Active and Passive, *shall* being used for the first person, *will* for the second and third in affirmative

principal sentences; but in subordinate clauses after a relative or such words as *if, though, lest, unless, until, as, when*, the verb *shall* is used throughout. "I shall go," "We shall go," "You will go," "They will go." But, "When He *shall* appear we shall be like Him;" "Any one who *shall* be guilty of neglect, etc.;" "I will wait until you *shall* think it proper to go"; "If it *shall* be proved, etc."

SHALL implies an obligation to do something. When used in the first person as a simple auxiliary of a future tense it seems to indicate that the speaker acknowledges his dependence either upon the will of others or upon the force of circumstances. Similarly *will* is used in the second and third persons and suggests that the action depends upon the will of the other person. In questions and in reported speech *shall* is the same in the second and third persons as it would be in the answer, or as it was in the direct speech: "*Shall* you go by boat or by train?" "I *shall* go by train." "John said that he *should* not set out to-morrow." The verb used in the question depends on what is expected in the reply. "*Will* you have tea or coffee?" "I *will* have tea." The question, "*Will* I do so and so?" is absurd. *Will* in the first person implies intention, and one does not look to others for information regarding one's own intentions.

SHALL and WILL when used merely as signs of tense are devoid of notional force. When used as notional verbs they no longer predict. "Thou shalt not steal" asserts a present obligation; "I will have obedience," a present intention. There is no prediction of a future act in either.

It is true that the expressions "I shall be glad," "I shall be pleased," "I shall be delighted" all convey the idea of willingness, but the idea of willingness is in the words *glad*, *pleased*, *delighted*, and not in the word *shall*.

SHOULD and WOULD are used as signs of the Subjunctive.

MAY is used as an auxiliary in the Subjunctive Mood: "Give me water that I *may* not thirst;" "He strove that she *might* succeed." As a principal or notional verb, *may* denotes (1) the absence of any obstacle to an action: "A man may easily make mistakes;" "He *may* be rich and not happy;" (2) permission: "You *may* now go."

Do as a principal verb is equivalent to *perform*: "Do your duty." Its use as an auxiliary is noticed on page 146.

Certain verbs in constant use are said to be defective because they have not the full complement of moods and tenses.

Shall has *should* and *will* has *would* as past indefinite. *Might* is the past indefinite of *may*. *Must* has no variations of form. *Could* is the past indefinite of *can*. *Wot* and *wist* are companion forms of *wit* and are rarely used now-a-days. "God *wot*" = knows; "I *wist* not that he was the high priest" = knew not. *Ought* was the past tense of the verb *owe*. *Dare*, originally a past tense, became a present from which *durst* was formed. *Worth* is a relic of a verb meaning to *become*: "Woe worth the day" = "Woe be to the day."

CHAPTER XVII

SYNTAX OF THE VERB

56. Agreement and Government.

A Verb agrees with its Subject in number and person. As the subject names the thing the sentence is about and the verb tells something about that thing it is natural that there should be agreement between subject and verb in respect of the points they have in common. "He is;" "They are;" "The boys play;" "Men are mortal." These sentences illustrate the agreement spoken of.

A subject may be plural in form but singular in meaning. In such case where a single whole is meant a singular verb is required. "Measles *is* a disease of childhood." "Ten miles *is* a long walk."

Where there are two or more singular subjects connected by "either-or," or "neither-nor," suggesting an alternative, the verb is singular. "Either John or James *is* at fault;" "Neither John nor James *is* to blame."

A collective noun in the singular is followed by a singular verb when the whole group is thought of as a single thing, and by a plural verb when we have in mind the individuals composing it. "The jury *was* of that opinion." "The jury *were* divided." Two or more singular subjects connected by *and* are followed by a verb in the plural: "The man and his brother live together."

Two or more singular subjects connected by *and* may, however, form a compound subject: "The hue and cry *was* raised." "Bread and butter *is* considered excellent food."

When the subjects differ in number or person the difficulty is avoided by separating them: "Either he or I am to blame" sounds awkward. Better say "Either he is to blame or I am."

The verb requires that its subject shall take the Nominative and its object the Objective Case.

57. Order.

The usual order of 1. Subject and 2. Verb has already been mentioned in connection with the Noun.

The inverted order of 1. Verb, 2. Subject is sometimes used, *e.g.*, in questions, commands, entreaties, after quotations with the words *quoth*, *say*, *answer*, in conditional clauses without *if* or *though*, and in rhetorical and poetical language.

"Can such things be?"

"Vex not thou the poet's mind."

"'There was a ship,' quoth he."

"Were I Brutus and Brutus Anthony!"

"Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight."

"Far flashed the red artillery."

Observe the sequence of tenses in the following:

(a) He says that he is ill.

He thinks that he will come.

He will say that he is unable to come.

He will tell you that he will do his best.

He has worked hard so that he may pass his examinations.

(b) He said he would come.

He thought he might succeed.

He had decided that he would do it.

In the first group the present or future in the principal clause is followed by a present or future indicative or a present subjunctive in the dependent clause. In the second group past tenses in the dependent clauses follow pasts in the principal clause.

If the dependent clause states a universal truth the present tense is used. "He knew that water boils at 212° ."

REPORTED SPEECH

In reporting a speech directly the precise words are given. In the indirect form the pronouns and tenses must be altered.

Compare the following, and point out any differences you notice in the tense of the verbs:

- (a) The Guest of the evening, in his speech in reply to the toast of his health, said he believed that there was one other Yorkshireman in the room and that they were prepared to hold up their respective ends even in such company as that. It was an old and familiar gibe that wherever you go in the British Empire you find Scotsmen in places of authority, or at any rate emolument. It was well that the balance should from time to time be—he would not say redressed, for that was impossible—but slightly tilted in favour of what is sarcastically called the predominant partner. There had been one or two such moments in his life—one when he was elected for the first time in East Fife; another was a few years later when he had the privilege of ascending an elevation in Fife accompanied by two of his colleagues. When they had got to that elevated spot, one of the three—he wouldn't say which; it was certainly not himself—looking around

and seeing on the one side East Fife, on the other West Fife, and across the waters of the Forth spreading out the county of East Lothian, spoke of what a comforting reflection it was that there was not an acre of land that they could see from there which was not represented at Westminster by an English barrister. He himself was the only person of the three who claimed not to have one drop of Scottish blood in his veins or Scottish association by parentage or connection.

- (b) The Guest of the evening, in his speech in reply to the toast of his health, said: "I believe there is one other Yorkshireman in this room, and that we are prepared to hold up our respective ends even in such company as this. It is an old and familiar gibe that wherever you go in the British Empire you find Scotsmen in places of authority, or at any rate emolument. It is well that the balance should from time to time be—I will not say redressed, for that is impossible—but slightly tilted in favour of what is sarcastically called the predominant partner. There have been one or two such moments in my life—one was when I was elected for the first time for East Fife; another was a few years later when I had the privilege of ascending an elevation in Fife accompanied by two of my colleagues. When we got to that elevated spot, one of the three—I won't say which; it certainly was not myself—looking around and seeing on the one side East Fife, on the other side West Fife, and across the waters of the Forth spreading out the county of East Lothian, said, 'What a comforting reflection it is that there is not an acre of land that we can see from here which is not repre-

sented at Westminster by an English barrister !' I myself was the only person of the trio who claimed not to have one drop of Scottish blood in his veins or Scottish association by parentage or connection."

58. Parsing.

In parsing a Verb given under the head of Sub-class, its kind and structure, transitive or intransitive, and strong or weak ; under the head of Form, its voice, mood, tense, number, and person ; and finally its grammatical relation.

Parse the Verbs and Verb-phrases in the following :

I shall see him to-morrow. If he was there, I did not see him. See that all be in readiness. He has been injured by hard work. Give me water that I may not thirst. A man may easily make mistakes.

WORD.	CLASS.	SUB-CLASS.	FORM.	GRAMMATICAL RELATION.
shall see :	verb ;	transitive ; strong ;	active, indicative, fu- ture ; first, singular,	agreeing with its subject <i>I</i> .
was :	verb ;	intransitive ; strong ;	indicative, past tense ; third singular,	agreeing with subject <i>he</i> .
did see :	verb ;	transitive ; strong ;	active, indicative, past ; first, singular,	agreeing with subject <i>I</i> .
see :	verb ;	transitive ; strong ;	active, imperative, pre- sent ; second person,	agreeing with subject <i>you</i> .
be :	verb ;	intransitive ; strong ;	subjunctive, present ; third, singular,	agreeing with subject <i>all</i> .
has been injured :	verb ;	transitive ; weak ;	passive, indicative pre- sent perfect ; third, singular,	agreeing with subject <i>he</i> .
give :	verb ;	transitive ; strong ;	active, imperative, pre- sent ; second person,	agreeing with subject <i>thou</i> or <i>you</i> .
may thirst	verb ;	intransitive ; weak ;	subjunctive, present ; third, singular,	agreeing with subject <i>I</i> .
may :	verb ;	intransitive ; defective ;	indicative, present, third, singular,	agreeing with subject <i>man</i> .
make :	verb ;	transitive ; weak ;	present, infinitive, active,	complement of <i>may</i> .

EXERCISES

1. *Turn to the active form :*

In due time the mansion was finished.

The wheat has been badly injured by the hail.

In 1453 Constantinople was captured by the Turks and made the capital of their empire.

He was generally seen trooping like a colt at his mother's heels.

I was suddenly aroused by a cry from the soldier.

2. *Turn to the passive form :*

A report like that of a cannon interrupted his exclamation.

They saw the storm approaching.

Garrick's death eclipsed the gayety of nations, and impoverished the public stock of harmless pleasures.

Manners reveal character.

We dropped the subject, and have not referred to it since.

3. *Use the following verbs (a) transitively (b) intransitively :*

Act, bide, blow, boil, break, feed, fly, grow, keep, recover, stay, upset, wear.

4. *Use lie, fall, rise, sit, lay, fell, raise, set, in sentences : and give the principal parts of each.*

5. *Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of the following verbs, and say which are Strong and which Weak :*

Arise, beat, bring, begin, bite, build, burn, climb, cost, creep, cling, do, dwell, drive, feed, find, fling, go, gild, heave, help, hit, know, knit, lead, leap, melt, mean, put, ride, rise, see, shave, shoot, sleep, spill, spend, sink, take, tell, think, wend, wind, write.

6. *Correct :*

I have arose early every morning this week.

The toast was drank with great enthusiasm.

He lay down his books and then laid on the sofa for an hour.

Some deep meaning underlaid this action.

As far as I have went, I like my new duties.

Born at Boston, a great deal of his youth was spent there.

Being stolen, the bank refused to honour the note.

Climbing to the top of the tree, the Indians could be seen at a distance.

Walking down the street an automobile rushed by.

7. *In the following sentences which contain simple futures, and which have some added meaning*

I will not inconvenience myself.

Thou shalt not kill.

Shall you go by boat or by train ?

What will your father say to that ?

I will be master in my own house.

I shall not yield an inch.

They shall pay dearly for this.

Will you please call at my house ?

Shall you have time to see me to-morrow ?

Will you have some more of the chicken ?

A horse will not eat out of a dirty manger.

What shall we say ?

8. *Use "shall" in sentences to express (a) Resolution, (b) Promise, (c) Command, (d) Threat, (e) Simple Futurity.*

9. *Insert the proper future forms ("shall" or "will") in the following :*

We doubt if we —— be able to come.

—— you be in town next week ?

—— I open the door ?

This boy —— be ten years old to-morrow.

I hope we —— not be too early.

A house built on sand —— not endure.

He thinks we —— soon have rain.

John thinks James —— be sick to-morrow.

I hope we —— not be late.

—— you meet me at the corner in ten minutes.

—— we go to-morrow ?

—— you be able to come ?

10. *Distinguish the notional and auxiliary verbs in the following :*

He does his work.

Did you see the procession ?

I am writing a letter.

You may lose your way.

You may now leave the room.

I have no doubt of your honesty.

Have you given me any cause to doubt it ?

He is a coming man.

He has been warned but he will not listen.

11. *Distinguish the Verbal Nouns, Gerunds, Participles, and Infinitives in the following :*

It is not worth the keeping ; let it go.

We took him to be a sort of magician.

We were looking for water to drink.
Journeys end in lovers' meeting.
The riding of the cavalry was excellent.
It is hardly worth writing about.
The weeping girl stood waiting for her father.
He had not heard of your having passed the examination.
The same restless paces to and fro.
Came stealing through the dusk an angel shape.
The writing of notes is prohibited.
Better dwell in the midst of alarms.
Better be with the dead.
Plain living and high thinking are no more.
He remembered speaking to me about it.
That was a day to remember.
The idea of his thinking of taking a journey on horseback.
He insisted on my coming immediately.
In wooing sorrow let's be brief.
I am surprised at his missing the train.

12. *In the following, distinguish the use of the participle as a qualitative adjective from its use with the verb "be" in the formation of a tense of the passive voice :*

The apples were picked yesterday.
Man is born into trouble.
Rome was not built in a day.
The ship was built by contract.
The ship was built of iron.
Our little life is rounded by a sleep.
He was stretched upon his bed.
He was stretched upon a rack.

The quality of mercy is not strained.

The children are famished.

The prisoner was starved to death.

The troops were surprised by the enemy.

I am surprised by his behaviour.

13. *Construct sentences to illustrate the use of the infinitive as subject, as complement, as object of a preposition.*

14. *Distinguish between :*

He lived there many years *and* He has lived there many years.

He always walks down that street *and* He is always walking down that street.

I have received letters from him *and* I have been receiving letters from him.

He has written letters all day *and* He has been writing letters all day.

I shall spend fifty dollars this week *and* I shall have spent fifty dollars.

I have gone fishing frequently *and* I go fishing frequently.

What have you done to-day? *and* What have you been doing to-day?

15. *Correct, where necessary :*

I have been here yesterday.

By this time to-morrow I shall pass my examinations.

Did you say water boiled at 212°?

He believed that honesty was the best policy.

I knew him since he was a child.

Shakespeare said that love was blind.

I saw him on the street this very day.

It would have been better to have waited here.

I expected to have seen you.

He could not have failed to have aroused suspicion.

I never remember to have seen such a storm.

His last journey was to Cannes whence he was never destined to return.

His success is neither the result of system nor strategy.

He is neither disposed to sanction bloodshed nor deceit.

I hoped to immediately succeed.

He neither knows French nor German.

Few people learn anything that is worth learning easily.

I wanted to see him very badly.

We wish to secure the position very much.

They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.

She was only allowed to occupy the smaller room.

He repeated those lines after he had read them once with perfect accuracy.

The Moor, seizing a bolster, full of rage and fury, smothers her.

In the afternoon the flower show will be held in the gardens and at which the band will be present.

He seldom took up the Bible which he frequently did without shedding tears.

When did you tell him you would come?

I promised to say nothing which I hoped would conciliate him.

Fights frequently ensue in consequence but which are generally put a stop to before any damage is done by the interference of friends.

I intended to have gone but I will likely be prevented.

He is a man whom I should think was one of the bravest that ever was in the army.

I would like to have come if I had been able.

Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water teem with life.

Travelling along the road the tall chimneys appeared to the right.

I saw the policeman and pickpocket on opposite sides of the street.

No one expressed their opinion so clearly as him.

All the horses were in good condition except the gray which he couldn't tell what was the matter with him.

My servant is a man whom I know is trustworthy.

It is not merely necessary to observe but to meditate.

16. *Give the mood of the verbs in the following :*

Live a thousand years, I shall not find myself so fit to die.

Go charge my goblins that they grind their joints.

Thy money perish with thee.

He serves his party best who serves his country best.

Gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost.

May it please you, madam,

That he bid Helen come to you.

If I were you I would not go.

If it prove as difficult as it appears we shall have a hard time of it.

If he keep a stiff upper lip, never show the white feather, and be always fair all will be well.

If he was there I did not see him.

Criminal though he be, there are still rights that he can claim.

17. *Parse the verbs and verb-phrases in the following :*

The only thing left was to get into the house and that was a difficulty which to me singly would have been insurmountable. The letter must have gone yesterday. You may have this book. I have been advised to go early. If the dog was killing the sheep, the keeper was right in shooting it. He was taught Latin by his father. Go thou and do likewise. The rebellion had spread rapidly. John had been drinking heavily. But hark ! the cry is ' Astur,' And lo ! the ranks divide. The steamer goes to-morrow. The meeting became uproarious. I was being shaved when the train came in. I have been taught to go to church regularly. He will have been informed before we arrive.

18. *Parse the infinitives, participles, and gerunds in the following :*

True ease in writing comes from art, not chance, As those move easiest who have learned to dance. Bind the tares to be burnt up. There was no one to help me. They got in by bursting open the door. The champion, moving onward amid these well-meant hints, ascended the platform by the sloping alley which led to it from the lists, and to the astonishment of all present, riding straight up to the centre of the pavilion struck with the sharp end of his spear the shield of Brian de Bois-Guilbert, until it rang again. All stood amazed at his presumption, but none more than the redoubtable knight whom he had thus defied to mortal combat, and who little expecting so rude a challenge was standing carelessly at the door of the pavilion. There came riding by a noble knight in shining armour drest. Everything being ready we started. To tell the truth I was not sorry to go.

19. *Turn to the direct form giving the words of the speaker :*

The minister described the bill as one that carried out the deliberate and considered expression of the popular will. As

to the sincerity of the government, he had already stated that on the mere ground of naked self-interest it would be their business to fulfil the pledges they had given. It would be a difficult and laborious task, and he hoped that as the subject developed it might be seen that there was more possibility of arriving at a common ground than there appeared to be at present, a larger field for agreement, and possibly for co-operation. But now, he said with emphasis and amid cheers, it was their duty in view of the electoral and parliamentary history of the bill, to place it on the statute book, for it was stamped, if ever a measure was stamped, with the authority and approval of the electorate of the country.

20. *Turn to the indirect form :*

(a) "I have a kitten," wrote Cowper to Lady Hesketh, "the drollest of all creatures that ever wore a cat's skin. Her gambols are not to be described, and would be incredible, if they could. In point of size she is likely to be a kitten always, being extremely small of her age ; but time, I suppose, that spoils everything, will make her also a cat. You will see her, I hope, before that melancholy period shall arrive, for no wisdom that she may gain by experience and reflection hereafter will compensate the loss of her present hilarity. She is dressed in a tortoise-shell suit, and I know that you will delight in her."

(b) Lamb writes to Manning : "You must not expect to see the same England again which you left. Empires have been overturned, crowns trodden into dust, the face of the western world quite changed : your friends have all got old—those you left blooming—myself (who am one of the few that remember you) those golden hairs which you recollect my taking a pride in, turned to silvery and grey. Mary has been dead and buried many years—she desired to be buried in the silk gown you sent her. Rickman, that you remember active

and strong, now walks out supported by a servant-maid and a stick. Martin Burney is a very old man. The other day an aged woman knocked at my door, and pretended to my acquaintance; it was long before we made her out to be Louisa, the daughter of Mrs. Topham, formerly Mrs. Morton, who had been Mrs. Reynolds, formerly Mrs. Kenney, whose first husband was Holcroft, the dramatic writer of the last century. St. Paul's church is a heap of ruins; the Monument isn't half so high as you knew it, divers parts being successively taken down which the ravages of time had rendered dangerous. For aught I see you had almost as well remain where you are, and not come like a Struldbrug into a world where few were born when you went away. Scarce here and there one will be able to make out your face; all your opinions will be out of date, your jokes obsolete, your puns rejected with fastidiousness as wit of the last age."

CHAPTER XVIII

CONNECTIVES

59. Prepositions.

Broadly speaking, conjunctions bear the same relation to sentences as prepositions bear to words.

A preposition is a word which when placed before a noun or a pronoun shows its relation to some other word in the sentence. Thus in the sentence "I saw a cloud in the sky," *in* is a preposition and marks the relation in which *a cloud* stands to *the sky*. When we have occasion to join sentences together we use conjunctions. Thus we may desire to join together and show the relation between the thought "the stars shine" and the thought, "the stars are white hot." Accordingly we choose the word that expresses that relation and say: "The stars shine *because* they are white hot."

The conjunction *and* is the only exception to the rule that conjunctions join sentences. *And* is also used to unite words that are grammatically alike. It was originally a preposition meaning *along with*.

Prepositions express relations within sentences. Things and their actions and attributes can only bear relations to other things. Therefore prepositions are used with substantives, which stand for things. If the first use of prepositions was to indicate relations in space, *in*, *on*, *under*, *by*, *beside*, *to*, *from*, *with*, *at*, *off*, *beyond*, etc., and next to designate relations in time, *before*, *after*, etc., it is easy to see how they could be employed to denote abstract relations.

The word *above*, for example, is soon pressed into service to indicate elevation or superiority in social or moral position as well as mere spatial relation. Thus we speak of the King being *above* the noble in social standing, or of a prisoner *under* sentence, or of a crime *beneath* contempt.

By means *close to* or *alongside of*. To swear *by* the altar probably meant originally to perform the act *near* or *close to* the altar. To arrive *by* a certain hour means *close to* that hour. The same idea of proximity is suggested as the original meaning of the preposition *in* in the following:—"The boomerang must have been discovered *by* some savage throwing a crooked branch." "Ten degrees *by* the thermometer." "To sell *by* the yard." "To drink *by* the gallon." "Death *by* fire, *by* drowning."

In is the preposition of inclusion, and may indicate a definite space relation: "The stars *in* the sky;" "A room *in* the house;" "The child *in* arms;" or a time relation: "It happened *in* the evening;" and by a natural transition we get such expressions as "Honesty *in* a man goes a long way *in* life;" "He spoke *in* a whisper;" "He works *in* gold;" "Her rattling shrouds all sheathed *in* ice;" "Delighting *in* strife;" "Patient *in* tribulation;" "Johnson lives neither *in* his prose nor *in* his verse, but *in* the record of his daily talk."

Similarly from the idea of *before* or *in front of* in both place and time denoted by the preposition *for* came that of defence, "to fight *for* one's hearth and home." From defence to representation or substitution the transition is easy: "Thy purpose hath atoned *for* thy hasty rashness;" "He was left *for* dead on the field;"

“Eye *for* eye.” Further developments are seen in: “He was punished *for* the crime.” “He did his duty *for* love of country.” Here we see the idea of requital and also the purpose or motive of an action.

A Preposition and a Noun (or Pronoun) together form a phrase which as a whole does the work either of an adjective or of an adverb. “He ran *across the street*.” Here the phrase *across the street* modifies the verb *ran*. “A man *of honour* is respected.” The phrase *of honour* is an adjective phrase qualifying *man*. *Across* shows the relation between *ran* and *street*; *of* the relation between *man* and *honour*.

The preposition is said to govern the noun or pronoun in the phrase of which it is a part. The pronoun in that situation must take the objective form, and is said to be in the objective case after the preposition. The nominative and objective forms of the noun are the same.

SYNTAX

It is usual to find the preposition immediately before the word it governs. It is frequently shifted, however, in spite of the effort of some grammarians who desire that the word should be made to live up to the meaning of its root (*prae*, *before*, and *positus* *placed*): “The wine of life is drawn and the mere lees is left this vault to brag *of*.” “Hanging is the worst use a man could be put *to*.” “Do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made *of*.” “The soil out of which such men as he are made is good to be born *on*, good to live *on*, good to die *for*, and to be buried *in*.”

Certain prepositions are appropriate after certain verbs, nouns, and adjectives. A list of these is given in the Appendix.

60. Conjunctions.

CONJUNCTIONS are so called because they join sentences together.

Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns join sentences, but are not classed with the conjunctions.

Conjunctions are of two kinds, Co-ordinate and Sub-ordinate. Examine the following :

1. I know his worth *and* I value it.
2. You must study *or* you will fall behind.

In each of these examples we have a compound sentence :

1. A. I know his worth.
B. I value it.
2. A. You must study.
B. You will fall behind.

These conjunctions *and* and *or* are called CO-ORDINATE or CO-ORDINATING because they unite two Co-ordinate Clauses.

Examine the following :

1. The pilot grumbled *as* he cast his groggy eyes aloft.
2. Love was given *that* self might be annulled.
3. No man securely rejoiceth *unless* he have within him the testimony of a good conscience.

1. A. The pilot grumbled
a. (*as*) he cast his groggy eyes aloft.
2. A. Love was given
a. (*that*) self might be annulled.
3. A. No man securely rejoiceth
a. (*unless*) he have within him the testimony of a
good conscience.

In each of these examples we have a subordinate clause connected with a main or principal clause by a conjunction. *As*, *that*, and *unless* are called subordinating or subordinative conjunctions because they are employed to connect and show the relation between a subordinate clause and the main or containing clause of which it is really a part. Complex sentences usually furnish examples of the use of the subordinating conjunctions.

Observe the following :

1. I know that he is honest and that he does his very best.
 2. Who he was or what he wanted will never be known.
 3. The burden was heavy for those men who were new in the country and who had no knowledge of farming.
1. A. I know
1a. (*that*) he is honest
2a. (*and that*) he does his very best.
 2. A. Clause 1 a. or clause 2 a. will never be known
1a. Who he was
2a. (*or*) what he wanted.
 3. A. The burden was heavy for those men
1a. Who were new in the country
2a. (*and*) who had no knowledge of farming.

In each of these examples we have two subordinate clauses attached to a main or principal clause. These subordinate clauses in each case are of the same rank and are connected together by a conjunction. The conjunctions *and*, connecting the clauses *he is honest* and *he does his best*; *or*, connecting the clauses *who he was* and *what he wanted*; and *and* connecting the clauses *who were new in the country* and *who had no knowledge of farming* are co-ordinating conjunctions because they connect clauses of equal rank or order. The clause *he is honest* is co-ordinate with *he does his very best*: they are therefore joined by a co-ordinating conjunction. Both of these clauses are subordinate to the main clause and are joined to it by a subordinating conjunction *that*.

A CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTION joins the co-ordinate members of a sentence: two main clauses, two subordinate clauses, two phrases, or two words used in the same way.

A SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION is one which unites an adverbial or substantive clause to some word in the main clause upon which it is dependent.

The CO-ORDINATING Conjunctions are:

COPULATIVE: *and, both, now.*

“The one received a prize, *and* the other was promoted.”

“He was *both* degraded *and* expelled.”

“They proposed to visit Egypt; *now*, Egypt is a hot country.”

ADVERSATIVE: *but.*

“He is dark, *but* his brother is fair.”

ALTERNATIVE: *or, either—or, neither—nor, whether—or.*

“Words that wise Bacon *or* brave Raleigh spake.”

“*Either* this man sinned *or* his parents.”

“I do not know *whether* I shall ride *or* walk.”

The SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are :

The SIMPLE CONJUNCTION OF SUBORDINATION : *that*.

"I am told *that* he is better."

"He made a promise *that* he would return soon."

"Men work *that* they may obtain a living."

CONJUNCTIONS expressing RELATIONS OF TIME AND PLACE : *after, before, ere, till, as, while, since, where, whence*.

"He returned home *after* he had done the work."

"He came in *as* the clock struck four."

"No one can harm us *while* we remain here."

"We find flowers *where* we expected weeds."

"He remained silent *when* he heard that."

CONJUNCTIONS OF CAUSE AND CONDITION : *because, since, for, whereas, unless, if, except, provided, though, although, lest*.

"He will succeed *because* he has faith."

"I will do this *since* you desire it."

"The post boy drove with fierce career, *for* threatening clouds the moon had drowned."

"*If* Browning had a message, it was a message of belief."

"They threatened to beat him *unless* he confessed."

"He feared *lest* darkness should overtake him."

CONJUNCTIONS OF COMPARISON : *than, as*.

"He came sooner *than* I expected."

"Fast *as* the fatal symbol flies,
In arms the huts and hamlets rise."

In dealing with the conjunction the student will do well to keep particularly in mind the oft-repeated statement that words are classified according to the work

they do. The word *that* may be a conjunction, or a demonstrative, or a relative; "I know *that* he said so;" "*That* man is your friend;" "*That* is quite true;" "The flag *that* braved, etc." *After, before, until* are prepositions in the following sentences: "John ran *after* him;" "He has stood *before* kings;" "He cannot come *until* Saturday." They are conjunctions in: "John came *after* I returned;" "He rose *before* I awoke;" "He cannot come *until* the weather moderates." *Now* is a conjunction in this sentence: "They preferred Barabbas to Jesus; *now*, Barabbas was a robber." It is an adverb in this: "We cannot see him *now*."

The subordinative conjunction of comparison, *than*, is followed by the same case as that of the noun or pronoun preceding it. "*He* is older *than I*." "I like him better *than her*" (better than I like her). The colloquial use of the objective case after *than*, as "He is older *than me*," may be defended on the ground that *than* was formerly treated as a preposition. "A man no mightier *than thyself* or *me*." "As he was a poet sublimer *than me*." "Beelzebub *than* whom none higher sat."

As is used to indicate *time*: "He trembled *as* he spoke;" *manner*: "Do *as* you are told;" *condition*: "He went *as* he was;" *extent*: "He can run *as* fast *as* you;" *cause*: "As the metal was heated it expanded." The use of the objective following this word is similar to its use after *than*. Thomson has "The nations not so blest *as thee*;" and Scott, "Even such weak minister *as me* May the oppressor bruise."

The use of *like* as a subordinative conjunction is to be avoided. "Do *as* I told you," not "Do *like* I told you."

The redundant use of *and* is to be avoided. "Shakespeare frequently has passages in a strain quite false, *and which* are entirely unworthy of him." "I have a book printed in Antwerp, *and which* was once possessed by Adam Smith." Where there are *two* relative clauses they may, of course, be connected by *and*. "It was a book which made a deep impression upon me and which I read over and over again."

EXERCISES

1. Use the word "*that*" in sentences to show it may be a conjunction, a pronoun, or an adjective.

2. Write sentences to show the use of "*after*" and "*before*" as conjunctions, as prepositions, and as adverbs.

3. Give examples of prepositions composed of several words.

4. Correct or justify the following :

I saw her again laid up with a fever she caught in her vocation and which had proved fatal.

Provision is made for happiness of a quite different nature than can be said to be made for misery.

They know that as well as me.

His success is neither the result of system nor strategy.

I will try and go.

I will try to go.

He is not only the maker of a nation but of a language.

He has done work of a high order and which deserves our gratitude.

I like either a sweet or sour apple.

It is not nor it cannot come to good.

He neither knows French nor German.

All the conspirators save only he.

Nor never none shall mistress be of it save I alone.

Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, as knowledge.

In this instance I differ with you.

Neither his father or his mother are alive.

You are not to be pitied as them who have no roof over their heads.

This is the same man as I saw.

5. *Form sentences to show what preposition is used after each of the following words :*

addicted, analogy, attendance, authority, averse, associated, adapted, claim, contemporary, confer, consist, distrust, doubt, desist, discourage, endeavour, eager, exclusive, exception, experience, expert, gratitude, harmonize, influence, insensible, interest, imputation, incidental, longing, need, neglect, offence, oblivious, prodigal (adj.), pride, proof, pertinent, prejudice, provide, relevant, regard, ready, synonymous, search, slave, thirst, taste, typical, use, victim, worthy.

6. *Parse the word "now" in the following :*

Now the serpent was more subtil than any beast of the field.

Now that the wind has changed we may look for better weather.

Now the consul's brow was sad.

Now running, *now* stopping to rest.

7. *Construct sentences containing the words "than I," "as he," "than me," and explain exactly the force of each sentence.*

8. *Parse the conjunctions in the exercises on pages 173, 174, and 175.*

CHAPTER XIX

INFLECTION, COMPOSITON, AND DERIVATION

61. Inflection.

A change in the form of a word to indicate a change of grammatical relation or value is called an INFLECTION. The various forms of "man" (*man's*, *men*, *men's*), of "he" (*his*, *him*), of "black" (*blacker*, *blackest*), of "drink" (*drinks*, *drinketh*, *drank*) are examples of inflection. Inflectional changes may be by the use of added letters or syllables which we attach to the stem or root of a word, or by an internal change, a change of vowel as from *a* to *e* (*man*, *men*), *i* to *o* (*drive*, *drove*), etc.

62. Composition.

By combining two or more significant words, *i.e.*, by COMPOSITION, we may produce a class of secondary words known as compounds. Thus: *man-slayer*, *blackbird*, *drinking-cup*, *midshipman*.

In the process of uniting two words in this way to form a compound the blending is gradual. Until the union is complete the accent falls equally on both, as in *knee-deep*. When the composition is an established fact the first word, which is in most cases the modifying one, takes the accent; *Heart-broken*, *teaspoon*, *grindstone*.

The following combinations may be noted:

A. COMPOUND NOUNS

1. NOUN AND NOUN:

The first denoting what the second consists of: *hay-stack*, *cornfield*, or is attached to: *churchyard*, *penhandle*, or is used for: *teaspoon*, *inkstand*.

2. NOUN AND ADJECTIVE :

The adjective modifying the noun as : *blackbird, quicksilver, gentleman.*

3. VERB AND NOUN :

The noun being the object of the verb as : *telltale, spitfire, turncoat, cutpurse.*

The cases where the noun precedes the verb are rare : *godsend, windfall* ; but a gerund is often preceded by a governed noun : *tea-drinking, wire-pulling.*

4. ADVERB AND VERB (or Noun expressing action).

The adverb modifying the verb or the noun : *outfit, onset, standstill, foretaste, afterthought.*

B. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

1. NOUN AND ADJECTIVE (or *noun and participle*).

(a) The noun preceding and modifying the adjective or participle adverbially as : *sky-blue, pitch-dark, blood-thirsty, head-strong, sinful, sea-faring, bed-ridden, heart-broken, sea-girt, fire-proof, air-tight.*

(b) Or used as the object of the participle : *tale-bearing, heart-rending, time-serving, God-fearing.*

(c) The adjective preceding : *bare-foot, two-fold.*

2. ADVERB AND ADJECTIVE (or *adverb and participle*) : *upright, all-bountiful, underbred, out-spoken, downcast.*

C. COMPOUND VERBS

1. VERB AND ADVERB : *overdo, understand, undergo, fulfil, outbid, overcome, undermine, inlay.*

2. VERB AND NOUN : with noun as object : *back-bite, brow-beat, hemstitch, waylay.*

3. VERB AND COMPLEMENT : *white-wash, rough-hew.*

D. COMPOUND ADVERBS

1. Consisting of a NOUN QUALIFIED BY AN ADJECTIVE: *meantime, sometimes, always, midway, straightway, somewhat.*

2. Consisting of a NOUN PRECEDED BY A PREPOSITION: *abed, asleep, afoot, betimes, between (by twain), forsooth, overboard, to-day.*

E. COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS

1. Combination of PREPOSITION AND ADVERB: *abaft, afore, before, behind, throughout, underneath, within, without, upon, into.*

2. Combination of PREPOSITION AND NOUN (or Adjective used substantively): *aboard, astride, aslant, below, inside, outside.*

63. Derivation.

From simple or primary words we may obtain secondary words by DERIVATION: *i.e.*, by attaching a prefix or a suffix, or by a change of vowel. Thus *bless* is a primary word from which we may get *blessed, unblest, bliss, blissful.*

DERIVATION BY MEANS OF PREFIXES OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN.

1. PREFIXES:

A: (of) *akin, athirst*; (on) *aboard, abed*; (out or from) *abide, awake, alight.*

BE: (by) *betimes, bemoan, behead, believe.*

FOR: (thoroughly) *forlorn, forgive*; with the sense of overdoing, *forswear, forget, forbid.*

GAIN: (against) *gainsay.*

MIS: (evil) *misdeed, mishap, mistrust*.

UN: (negative) *unbelief, uncouth, unwise*; and (implying the reversal of the action) *unbind, unsay, unveil*.

WITH: (against) *withstand, withdraw, withhold*.

2. SUFFIXES :

(a) forming Abstract Nouns.

DOM: *kingdom, earldom, thralldom, wisdom*.

HOOD, HEAD: *manhood, brotherhood, hardihood, God-head*.

RED: *hatred, kindred*.

SHIP, SCAPE: *friendship, landscape*.

ING: *learning, hunting, feeling*.

NESS: *kindness, sweetness, witness*.

T, TH: *height, growth, health, mirth*.

(b) diminutives.

EN: *maiden, chicken*.

LING: *gosling, duckling*.

KIN: *lamkin, mannikin*.

OCK: *hillock, bullock, mattock*.

Y, IE: *baby, lassie, Charlie*.

(c) denoting an agent or an instrument.

ER: *rider, baker, lawyer*.

EL, LE: *shovel, girdle, thimble*.

ND: *friend, fiend, wind*.

STER: *punster, tapster, songster, spinster*.

(d) forming Adjectives.

EN : *golden, linen, heathen, brazen*

ER : *bitter, fair.*

ERN : *Northern, Southern.*

ISH : *Scottish, heathenish, childish, foolish, boyish, bookish.*

LE or L : *fickle, idle, foul.*

LESS : *heedless, shameless.*

LY, LIKE : *manly, godlike.*

SOME : *winsome, gladsome, buxom, wholesome.*

WARD : *homeward, northward, seaward.*

Y : *leafy, windy, greedy.*

(e) forming verbs.

EL or LE : *grapple, shovel, nibble, sparkle.*

ER : *glimmer, linger, batter.*

K : (frequentative) *hark (hear) talk (tell).*

EN : *deepen, fatten, sweeten.*

SE : *rinse, cleanse.*

SK : (reflexive) *busk, bask.*

DERIVED WORDS CONTAINING PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN :

1. PREFIXES :

A, AB, ABS (from or away) : *avert, abdicate, abstract.*

AD (to) : *adore, acquit, allege, announce, appear, assail, attain.*

AM, AMB (round) : *amputate, ambitious.*

ANTE (before) : *antecedent, antediluvian.*

CIRCUM (round) : *circumscribe, circuitous.*

CON (with): *commit, conduct, collision, correct, cognate, coadjutor.*

CONTRA, CONTRO, COUNTER (against): *contravene, controvert, counteract.*

DE (down or from): *descend, depart, denote, detach.*

EX (out of): *exit, extract, efface, educate.*

EXTRA (beyond): *extravagant, extraneous, extraordinary.*

IN (in, into): *induce, invade, illusion.*

IN (negative): *infirm, illegal, irregular, immovable.*

INTER, INTRO (among, within): *interdict, introduce.*

OB (against): *obvious, occur, offend, oppose, oppress.*

PER (through): *perspire, permit, pellucid, pilgrim.*

POST (after): *postpone, postscript.*

PRAE or PRE (before): *preface.*

PRAETER, PRETER (past): *preterite, preternatural.*

PRO, POL, POR, PUR (forth): *promote, pollute, portray, pursue.*

RE (back or again): *reduce, refer.*

RETRO (backwards): *retrograde, retrospect.*

SE or SED (apart): *seduce, sedition.*

SUB (under): *subtract, succeed, suffer, suspend, supplant.*

SUBTER (beneath): *subterfuge.*

SUPER (above): *superscribe, superficies, surface, surfeit, superscription, surtout.*

TRANS (across): *translation, transitive.*

ULTRA (beyond): *ultramontane, ultramarine.*

2. SUFFIXES :

(a) Forming abstract nouns :

ION, TION, SION, ON : *opinion, action, tension, reason.*ANCE, ENCE, ANCY, ENCY : *distance, continence, infancy, decency.*AGE : *voyage, homage, bondage, vintage.*TY : *vanity, cruelty, unity.*TUDE : *magnitude, beatitude.*OUR (*L. OR*) : *honour, labour.*Y : *misery, memory, victory.*ICE, ESS : *justice, service, duress.*URE : *measure, culture, picture.*E : *exile, homicide.*

(b) Forming diminutives.

ULE : *globule.*EL, LE : *chapel, libel, table, circle.*CLE, CEL, SEL : *receptacle, parcel, damsel.*ET, LET : *owlet, pocket, cutlet, streamlet.*

(c) Forming adjectives (some of these became nouns).

AL : *legal, vital, comical.*AN, ANE, etc. : *pagan, mundane, certain, surgeon, sexton, mountain, campaign, foreign.*AR : *singular, solar.*ARY : *necessary, contrary.*IAN : *Christian.*INE, IM : *feline, divine, pilgrim.*ENT : *fluent, patent, equivalent.*

ATE, ETE, EET, etc. : *innate, concrete, discreet, erudite, polite.*

ILE, IL, EL, etc. : *senile, fragile, civil, gentle, kennel.*

ABLE, IBLE, BLE : *amiable, edible, feeble, flexible.*

IC, IQUE : *civic, rustic, unique.*

OUS, OSE : *copious, ingenuous, verbose, grandiose.*

ACIOUS : *mendacious, vivacious.*

ID : *timid, frigid, morbid.*

(*d*) Denoting persons or instruments.

ANT : *attendant, informant.*

ATE : *advocate, curate.*

BLE : *stable.*

CLE, CRE : *vehicle, sepulchre.*

ER, EER, IER, etc. : *butler, engineer, soldier, chancellor, lapidary, corsair, vicar.*

ESS : *burgess, marquess.*

ESS (*issa, fem.*) : *countess, governess.*

MENT : *ornament, document.*

TER, TRE : *cloister, monster, theatre, spectre.*

TOR, SOR, etc. : *doctor, successor, Saviour.*

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN :

1. PREFIXES :

A or AN (not) : *anarchy, anonymous.*

AMPHI (on both sides) : *amphibious, amphitheatre.*

ANA (up) : *anatomy, anachronism.*

ANTI (against) : *antipathy, antagonist.*

APO (from) : *apology, apostrophe.*

- CATA (down): *catastrophe, catalogue.*
 DI (two): *disyllable, dilemma.*
 DIA (through): *diameter, dialogue.*
 EN or EM (in or on): *emphasis, enthusiasm.*
 EPI (upon): *epitaph, epigram.*
 EC or EX (out of): *exodus, ecstatic.*
 HYPER (over): *hyperbolical, hyperborean.*
 HYPO (under): *hypotenuse, hypocrite.*
 META (change): *metamorphosis, metaphor.*
 PARA (beside): *paraphrase, paradox.*
 PERI (round): *perimeter, period.*
 PRO (before): *programme, prologue.*
 PROS (to): *prosody, proselyte.*
 SYN (with, together): *syndic, syntax, symbol.*
 EU (well): *euphony, eulogy.*

2. SUFFIXES:

- AC: *maniac, demoniac.*
 AD or ID: *Iliad, Aeneid.*
 IC: *logic, rhetoric.*
 ISK: *obelisk, basilisk.*
 IZE: *criticize, Anglicize.*
 SIS, SY, SE: *analysis, palsy, eclipse.*
 SM: *sophism, deism.*
 ST: *sophist, dramatist.*
 TE, T: *apostate, comet.*
 TRE: *centre, metre.*
 Y: *monarchy, astronomy.*

A Hybrid is a compound or derived word made up of elements derived from different languages :

Falsehood, grateful, unjust, artful, politeness, grandfather, doubtless, martyrdom, unfortunate, are hybrids, composed of English and classical elements.

The term *hybrid* is usually employed to denote a compound made from Teutonic and Classical elements. The word *fellow* is of Danish, and *ship* of English origin. But as Danish and English are closely related languages, some do not count *fellowship* a hybrid. *Titmouse* is in this view not a hybrid, although taken from a Scandinavian word meaning *little* and an English one denoting *a small bird*. *Trusteeship* which combines Danish, French, and English elements ; *life-guard*, which includes English and French ; *glossary*, Romanic with Greek ; *interloper*, Latin and Dutch ; *kerbstone*, Latin and English ; *mary-gold*, Hebrew and English ; *hautboy*, French and Dutch, are examples of the way in which hybrids are formed.

CHAPTER XX

PUNCTUATION

Grammar has to do not only with the way we speak but also with the way we write.

In order to make ourselves understood in conversation we often drop or raise our voices a little, or make a brief pause between one word or phrase or sentence and another. PUNCTUATION is used to show in our written sentences what it is so easy to express in our spoken language by these inflections and pauses. The word punctuation is derived from the Latin *punctum*, *a point*, and means "the right mode of putting in points or stops."

The stops made use of are: 1. The Comma (,); 2. The Semi-colon (;); 3. The Colon (:); 4. The Period (.).

64. Terminal Marks.

Most sentences close with a period. The other marks made use of at the end of sentences are the interrogation point or question mark and the exclamation mark, or as they are often called, the Note of Interrogation and the Note of Exclamation. The former follows a direct question; the latter is used to mark the end of an exclamation, an exclamatory sentence, or an interjection.

The PERIOD: This is a declarative sentence.

The Note of INTERROGATION: Where are you going? Can you come with me to-morrow? Where? Why? How many?

The Note of EXCLAMATION: How warm it is! How the wind blows! Hurrah! Alas! Dear me!

A period is the most usual terminal mark of a complete sentence. It is also used after abbreviations, Mr., Mrs., Maj., Col., Rev., St., etc.

65. Marks Within the Sentence.

It is sometimes convenient to employ a comma to show the structure of a compound sentence. In those cases where the clauses are not very long and the connection between them is close the comma may be omitted:

The horse reared and the rider was thrown.

The games are done and Cæsar is returning.

Joybells rang and fountains ran wine.

But where the clauses are long a comma may be used:

Atmospheric conditions are known to be responsible for sudden emissions of gas from certain qualities of coals, but corresponding precautions are habitually taken.

An army of twenty thousand men was disposed in different bodies along the south coast, and orders were given them to oppose with all their power any attempts at landing.

The moon was at the full, and the northern streamers were shining brilliantly.

The safest rule to follow in such cases, and indeed in most cases is: *Do not use a comma unless you are sure that its presence is necessary to make the meaning clearer.*

Sentences sometimes go in series, and a series of complete sentences may be placed together in one long sentence with commas to show a more or less intimate relation between them.

They groaned, they stirred, they all uprose.

I came, I saw, I conquered.

He resigned his dominions, embarked on board a small vessel, sailed to the Mediterranean, landed on a small island, and devoted himself to agriculture.

Very frequently semi-colons are used to indicate the relation of the members of a series :

The sparrow twittered about the thatched eaves and budding hedges ; the robin threw a livelier note into his late querulous wintry strain ; and the lark towered away into the bright fleecy cloud, pouring forth torrents of melody.

The last ray of sunshine departed ; the bats began to flit by in the twilight ; the road grew dimmer and dimmer to the view ; and nothing appeared stirring in it but now and then a peasant lagging homeward from his labour.

Meantime the fatted calf had been killed ; the forests had rung with the clamour of the huntsmen ; the kitchen was crowded with good cheer ; the cellars had yielded up whole oceans of Rhein-wein and Ferne-wein ; and even the great Heidelberg tun had been laid under contribution.

His temper was good ; his manners were agreeable ; his natural talents were above mediocrity ; but he was frivolous, false, and cold-hearted.

In punctuation, the pupil should bear in mind the difference between a pair of sentences and a series of three or more. In a series, as we have seen, commas may be used if the clauses are short. *But observe the following :*

Our carriage was overturned. It was soon righted.

Here are two simple sentences, each with its initial capital and its period. Each is grammatically independent of the other, and the punctuation should show this fact. The connection may, however, be close enough to admit of the use of a semi-colon.

Our carriage was overturned ; it was soon righted.

Here is another of the same kind :

It is very warm to-day. The sky is bright.

It may be written :

It is very warm to-day ; the sky is bright.

But the beginner should carefully avoid the error of writing such sentences in the following way :

Our carriage was overturned, it was soon righted.

It is very warm to-day, the sky is bright.

She is a pupil of promise, she is only twelve.

The foundation stone was laid a year ago, the building cost forty thousand.

These four sentences are incorrect. IT IS NEVER SAFE TO USE A COMMA TO SEPARATE TWO REALLY INDEPENDENT SENTENCES. Where there is a series of such clauses, commas will serve to set them off; but where there are only two, it is better to separate them by a period or a semi-colon. When in doubt, the beginner should use the period rather than the semi-colon.

Sometimes a Conjunction may be introduced. In such cases a comma will serve :

Our carriage was overturned, but it was soon righted.

It is very warm to-day, and the sky is bright.

She is a pupil of promise, although she is only twelve.

Next we may consider briefly the punctuation of the complex sentence.

Commas are used in complex sentences to separate the dependent clause from the rest of the sentence :

As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him.

Some men of the Horse-guards, who were on watch, heard the report.

As often as a ship struck, the crew of the Victory hurrahed.

When Caliban was lazy, and neglected his work, Ariel would pinch him.

But when the dependent clause comes last and the connection between it and the rest of the sentence is close, the comma may be omitted:

I will come as soon as I can get ready.

He lives wherever he can.

He will remain if he possibly can.

Labour and danger were doomed to intervene ere the horse or horseman reached the desired spot.

Their young men cut neither hair nor beard till they had slain an enemy.

1. *Words and phrases often go in pairs:*

Wet or dry, light or dark, old George was always in his place on Sunday.

Fat as ever, and jolly as ever, the old chap seemed the picture of happiness.

COMMAS ARE USED TO SET OFF WORDS OR PHRASES IN PAIRS.

2. *Words and phrases often go in series:*

He sells groceries, hardware, and drugs.

Her voice was ever soft, gentle, and low,—an excellent thing in woman.

He was a brave, generous, and patriotic prince.

It is necessary to have rapid plates, bright sunshine, and short exposure.

We sailed down the river, along the coast, and into a little bay.

COMMAS ARE USED TO SET OFF WORDS AND PHRASES IN SERIES.

3. SET OFF WITH A COMMA OR WITH COMMAS ANY WORD OR EXPRESSION NAMING A PERSON ADDRESSED.

Tom, come here.

Tell me, my boy, where have you been?

The Colon is used in the following sentences :

One thing I know : she is a lady.

This raises a difficult question : can we afford the time?

Of this there can be no doubt : the Stuart kings were a heavy load to carry.

There was trouble ahead in either case : to please one meant to anger the other.

The word is too general : it does not convey a clear image.

The book is disappointing : the plot is weak, and the characters are silly.

Our plan of government is better than theirs : our King is of no party.

In these cases the second member says in a specific way what is more generally expressed in the first.

When the latter of two clauses explains or specifies what is contained in the first, it is proper to use a Colon.

Quotation marks are used in a direct quotation to enclose the exact words of another :

"Lost time is never found again," says poor Richard.

"Nay, my Lord," answered the Prince ; "by your favour, it is sent by the advice of your Lordships, and some of you ought to carry it."

"You may go forward, John," said my friend, "and you will find over there," pointing with his hand, "a very comfortable seat and a good view."

The TITLE OF A BOOK is enclosed in quotation marks:

He is reading "The Seats of the Mighty."

EXERCISES

1. *Observe the punctuation of the following passages. The first was written nearly one hundred and seventy-five years ago; the second and third are recent.*

(a) I have already observ'd, that geometry, or the art, by which we fix the proportions of figures; tho' it much excels both in universality and exactness, the loose judgments of the senses and imagination; yet never attains a perfect precision and exactness. . . 'Tis usual with mathematicians, to pretend, that those ideas, which are their objects, are of so refin'd and spiritual a nature, that they fall not under the conception of the fancy, but must be comprehended by a pure and intellectual view, of which the superior faculties of the soul are alone capable.

(b) But as time went on and monasteries were established and Latin was taught and studied (Alfred the Great says that just before he came to the throne in 871 he could not remember a single one south of the Thames who could understand the Latin rituals in English or translate a letter from Latin to English) these native words dropped out of use and were replaced by *disciple*, *scribes*, *patriarch*, etc.

(c) The General said that while appreciating the spirit in which the proposal had been put forward he could not agree to it. They were all deeply anxious to bring the different parts of the empire together as closely as possible, but he believed that such a body as that proposed would only become

meddlesome and continually interfere with the domestic concerns of the various parts of the empire, and cause nothing but unpleasantness and friction.

2. *Punctuate the following, and supply capitals :*

(a) To attempt to reproduce the discourse would be a worse offence than making jam out of strawberries it must be enough to record the clarity with which miss terry brought out in nearly every heroine a distinguishing characteristic the force with which she backed her opinion by recitation of scenes or speeches the courage with which she flashed out her views of life and character the delightful unfairness with which she twisted plain facts to the glorification of her sex lady macbeth if you please so far from being an unnatural monster was only a too devoted and self-sacrificing wife without ambition for herself she gave her life that macbeth might be king but on the other hand how admirable miss terry's insistence on the nun-like quality in desdemona on her purity her tenacity her strength how inspiriting that fine outburst on the folly of fear how refreshing the conviction that katherine the wife of petruchio was a humbug provoking one to foresee the time when under guise of submission she could lead her lord by the nose and finally though a dozen other things might be mentioned how rare a pleasure to hear miss terry's delivery on the talk between desdemona and emilia on marital fidelity every word intensely alive and significant or of cleopatra's dirge over antony miss terry we suppose will never act shakespeares heroines again but she can talk about them inimitably.

(b) Here again is a sentence about montesquieu the english at that time macaulay says of the middle of the eighteenth century considered a frenchman who talked about constitutional checks as a prodigy not less astonishing than the learned pig or musical infant and then he goes on to describe the author of one of the most important books that ever were

written as specious but shallow studious of effect indifferent to truth the lively president and so forth stirring in any reader who happens to know montesquieu's influence a singular amazement.

(c) The sailors called me mate the officers addressed me as my man my comrades accepted me without hesitation for a person of their own character and experience but with some curious information one a mason himself believed I was a mason several and among these at least one of the seamen judged me to be a petty officer in the american navy and I was so often set down for a practical engineer that at last I had not the heart to deny it.

(d) Pooh pooh said john thornton buck can start a thousand pounds and break it out and walk with it for a hundred yards demanded matthewson a bonanza king he of the seven hundred vaunt and break it out and walk off with it for a hundred yards john thornton said coolly well matthewson said slowly and deliberately so that all could hear Ive got a thousand dollars that says he cant and there it is so saying he slammed a sack of gold dust of the size of a bologna sausage down upon the bar.

(e) To consider those dates with reference to alfred's education when his elder brother ethelbald succeeded alfred was seven years of age at the accession of ethelbert he was eleven at the accession of ethelred he was seventeen note also that in 861 when alfred was thirteen years of age his old friend and his fathers friend swithun otherwise written swithun died.

PART THREE

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF ENGLISH

CHAPTER XXI

GENERAL SURVEY

66. Race and Language.

English is in general use in the British Islands, throughout the self-governing dominions and crown colonies, and in the United States. Many millions of people who speak English are of English birth as well as speech. Many, however, of those who are English in speech derive their ancestry from other sources. Large numbers of Americans who know no other language are of German, Dutch, or Scandinavian origin. Within the empire there are numbers of people of Scotch and Irish race who speak no language but English. Even in the highlands of Scotland the native Gælic has almost completely given way to the English, although there are in that country and in certain Highland settlements abroad many who are familiar with both languages. By the term Englishman is ordinarily meant an individual whose home is in the southern part of the Island of Great Britain. But when we are thinking of speech or language the term English applies just as accurately to the American, the Welshman, or the Irishman, as it does to any East Anglian whose line of ancestry runs back to the marauding English immigrants of the fifth century.

We count English-speaking people to-day by millions. They are to be found spread over a great part of the earth's surface. Fifteen hundred years ago the English were a quite small group easily enumerated in thousands. The territory they then occupied was a small area in the northern part of the continent of Europe, and their language probably contained one or two thousand words.

67. Language an Organism.

Great changes have taken place in the language during that great period of time. A dead language, one that is no longer spoken, ceases to change. But with a living or spoken language it is different. Everything that is alive is constantly changing. The processes of change that take place in a living organism are not necessarily very rapid. But they are changes nevertheless, which gradually but surely modify its structure. The language that we speak to-day has undergone many changes during its long history. But we must remember that the English speech of to-day is essentially the same language as that which was spoken by the English who left their earlier homes in the fifth century and sailed across the sea to found a new home in Britain. Of all the historical events which have materially influenced the English language the settlement of the low lands of Britain by these Germanic invaders was perhaps the most important.

68. The Britons and Roman Rule.

Britain was at that time under the Roman government. The Britons when they were first subdued and Britain thus became part of the Roman Empire were a barbarous race,

but during their three hundred and sixty-odd years of contact with their Roman rulers made great progress in the arts and culture of the Roman civilization. They did not take to the language of their conquerors as kindly as did people of Gaul and Spain. Latin was the language of the camps and of the ruling class, and during later times of the church also. Many of the British people kept their own language. If the Roman occupation had continued, a popular form of Latin which had sprung up, and which was gaining ground would no doubt have overspread the country in time, the towns, forts, and monasteries forming centres of Roman influence. A considerable number of the natives who thus came into close contact with the Roman influence had adopted this form of speech, which would ultimately have spread throughout the whole land; but the Roman occupation came to an end in the year 410.

The reason for the withdrawal of the Roman forces was the difficulty of defending Italy and Rome itself from the attacks of the fierce German tribes who were threatening the empire in all directions. The Barbarian Migrations had been going on for some time. Britain itself had suffered from a swarm of pirates who sailed about the coasts of the North Sea and the Channel. The Romans had a regular organization to deal with these invaders. An officer was appointed to protect the exposed regions who was called the Count of the Saxon Shore.

69. The English Invasion.

During fifty years the Britons were left to their own resources. But the event proved that they were unable

either to maintain the Roman system of carrying on the government of their country or to withstand the attacks of the barbarians. They were assailed on the north by the Picts and Scots and on the east by the English. The latter were no longer merely raiders and pirates. They desired to secure permanent homes for themselves and forced their way into the country step by step until after a century and a half of warfare they became the masters of Southern Britain.

In their former home on the continent these invaders had no common name for themselves. They spoke somewhat different dialects of the same language, and were divided into several distinct tribes, Jutes, Saxons, Frisians, and Angles. There is a difference of opinion as to where the Jutes came from: some say from Denmark; others believe they lived in the valley of the lower Weser. The Saxons, a much more numerous people, came from the lower Elbe. The Frisians were their neighbours to the west between the Ems and the Rhine. The Angles came from Holstein.

The Jutes were the first to obtain a foothold in the island. They established themselves first in Kent. Later on another settlement was effected in the isle of Wight and on the south coast of Hampshire. The Saxons took possession of the southern and south-eastern parts of the country. The names Sussex, Wessex, Essex, and Middlesex celebrate the achievements of the South, West, East, and Middle Saxons. The Frisians and Angles occupied the country from the Thames northward to the Frith of Forth.



THE ENGLISH INVASIONS : 5th and 6th Centuries.

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The name by which the English knew the native people whom they thus conquered was the Welsh, that is, *foreigners*. The Britons on the other hand, following the Roman custom, called all the Germanic invaders *Saxons*, a name still employed by the Welsh, Irish, and Highland Scots of the present day to designate the English people and language. On the continent these tribes were called sometimes Saxons and sometimes Angles, the latter having the largest extent of territory. Pope Gregory, whose missionaries laboured in Kent, used only the name Angle. No doubt the power of the Angle Kingdoms which increased steadily from the 7th century till the coming of the Danes in the 9th, along with the influence of the official language of the church, helped to fix the use of the general name. King Alfred, himself a West Saxon, invariably uses the word *Englisc* as the name of his own dialect. It will be in every way convenient to use the word *English* to denote both the people and the language. The term *English* is better than *Anglo-Saxon* in that it points out the fact that the life and growth of the language have been continuous from the earliest times to the present, that there has been no displacement of one language by another, and that the changes within the language in pronunciation and grammar, in the acquisition of new words, and in the gradual disuse of old ones, constitute a natural and orderly development.

After a long and bitter struggle the natives were conquered and the English settlements established. The island was now divided into three parts: (1) Cumbria and the districts of North and West Wales; (2) Scotland; (3) England.

Cumbria was the northern region west of the Pennine range from the Ribble to the Clyde; West Wales included Cornwall, Devon, and part of Somerset; North Wales the portion represented by Modern Wales.

Scotland comprised the lands beyond the Forth and the Clyde. The rest of the island was occupied by the English invaders and the native population that remained.

70. The English Language and the Britons.

The English conquest of Britain was part of a great and general movement of the Barbarians. While our forefathers were engaged in the conquest of this part of the Roman Empire other Germanic tribes were attacking and taking possession of others. The Franks and Burgundians entered Gaul. The West Goths founded a kingdom partly in Spain and partly in Gaul. The Vandals established themselves in Northern Africa. Italy was overrun by the Ostrogoths and Lombards. But the English conquest was different from any of these. The other Germanic tribes had come under the influence of Roman civilization, had fought both in the Roman armies and against them, and when they finally conquered and overran the various portions of the empire they were content to occupy the land and enjoy the advantages offered by the higher civilization of the inhabitants. They had been Christianized. They made no attempt to expel or enslave the people or to destroy their towns. In language and in the character of the resulting civilization these countries were more Roman than Teutonic.

The English, on the other hand, knowing little and caring less about Roman culture and the Christian religion pursued a different policy. They destroyed many of the towns and indeed nearly everything that their brethren on the continent were careful to preserve. Many of the natives were driven back to the mountain districts or over sea to Brittany. A considerable number no doubt retired to the denser forests and marshes, and after a period of isolation gradually mixed with their conquerors and acquired their language, while in certain districts some were enslaved or reduced to a condition closely resembling slavery. The two languages spoken in the island by the half-Romanized Celts were very different from English. It is not surprising, therefore, that there are to be found in early English speech not more than six or seven loan-words to indicate the contact of the two peoples. The Britons might borrow words from the English. In the extinct Celtic language of Cornwall English loan-words occur. But while there were good reasons why the Britons should learn English and avoid Celtic or Latin words when talking English, there was nothing to induce the masterful and somewhat stolid English to learn the language of their social and political inferiors.

71. The English and Christianity.

In the year 597 an event occurred which had far reaching consequences upon the life and language of the English. This was the coming of the Roman missionaries under Augustine. The mission was successful, and in embracing the Christian religion the heathen English opened their minds to a number of new ideas which were

introduced along with it. This involved the adoption of a number of foreign words as a matter of course.

72. The Danish Invasions.

A third event which powerfully affected the life and language of the people of England was the Danish invasion and conquest. The Danes came from the northern portion of Denmark and from South Sweden. Like the Angles, they were of Scandinavian stock. They were also related to the Norsemen who established themselves on the Faroe, Shetland, and Orkney Islands, on the mainland of the extreme north, and on the islands along the western coast as far as the Isle of Man. Raids began before the close of the seven hundreds in the northern part of England. Fifty years later, regular campaigns were carried on with conquest and settlement in view. The first complete Danish conquest and settlement was that of East Anglia in 870. The war was prosecuted with great vigour in Mercia and Northumbria, and next year the invaders entered Wessex. The progress made by the Danes is indicated by the provisions of the treaty of peace between King Alfred of Wessex and Guthrum the Danish leader. A district known as the Danelaw comprising about two-thirds of England was given over to the Danes. The boundary between Wessex and the Danelaw began with the Thames river as far as the mouth of the Lea, then by Bedford and the Ouse to Watling Street, and on to Chester. Later, in the beginning of the eleventh century fresh swarms of Danish and Norse adventurers landed and the whole country was brought under the rule of the Danish conqueror Cnut. Numerous place



names in various parts of England show the extent of the Danish settlement. It is said that to the north of Watling Street there are six hundred instances of the Danish word *by*, a town, and in Lincolnshire alone one hundred are to be found.

73. The Danish Element in English.

A new element now enters into the English language. The Danes and the English-speaking inhabitants (for the resident Britons adopted the English language and were by this time merged in the mass of the population) now occupied the country in a relation approaching equality. In the south the English-speaking people, or the English as it is more convenient to call them, were stronger than the Danes in numbers and wealth; while in the rest of the country the Danes were the dominant party. Before very long the Danes accepted Christianity. They were closely allied to the English not only in race but in language as well. There was therefore no reason why the two peoples should not settle down side by side in peace. The Danes adopted the speech of their English neighbours, and during the process of assimilation a considerable number of Danish loan-words passed into the language.

74. The Germanic Group of Languages.

It is not difficult for a beginner in the study of German to name at once the English equivalents of *Bruder*, *Haus*, *Buch*, *Wort*, *Freund*, and the like. The strong resemblance between these words and their English equivalents may lead him to suppose that we borrowed them from the German. He is aware that the word

amicable is borrowed from the Latin, *amicus*, and hence is apt to think of *friend* as borrowed from the German which contains a word very much like it. As a matter of fact, however, we have borrowed practically nothing from that language. We must distinguish clearly between *borrowed* words and *cognate* words

The group of related languages known by the name of Romance,—the French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese,—are all descended from the Latin. We know from history that long ago the inhabitants of these countries all spoke one language. In time, owing to social and political causes, this language developed certain peculiarities in each of the four countries named, and four distinct languages resulted. Nevertheless, these have many points in common, because the changes in form which certain words have undergone were not so great as to obscure entirely their fundamental likeness. The similarity of Fr. *mère*, Italian *madre*, Spanish *madre*, Portuguese *mai* can hardly fail to attract attention, and is obviously due to the common relation of these words to the Latin *mater*. These languages are cognate languages, and certain words to be found in them derived from their mother-tongue are called cognate words.

The same feature may be observed in the group of languages of which English, German, Dutch and Danish are members. The German *Vater*, *Sohn*, *Bruder*, *Freund*, *Haus*; Dutch *Vader*, *Zoon*, *Broeder*, *Vriend*, *Huis*; and Scandinavian *Fader*, *Sön*, *Broder*, *Hus*, *Frände*, along with their English equivalents will illustrate further what is meant by cognate languages and cognate words.

It is natural to assume that there was at one time a single language spoken by a people whose descendants moving apart into separate communities and gradually developing certain peculiarities of speech thus became the founders of what grew into a distinct language. The name GERMANIC is given to the parent language thus assumed. This Germanic Group includes the Eastern and the Western Germanic Languages. In the former there are, in addition to the extinct Gothic, the Norwegian, Icelandic, Swedish, and Danish. The West Germanic comprises High German, and the several Low German languages, which are Flemish, Dutch, Platt-Deutsch, Frisian, and English.

DIALECTS OF OLD ENGLISH

The name Old English is a general name for the dialects which were spoken in various parts of the country. Three of these rose to literary prominence. The Northern was spoken by the Anglian tribes north of the Humber; the Midland by the mixed tribes of Anglians and Frisians between the Humber and the Thames; and the Southern or Wessex dialect by the Saxons. The Northern and Midland were especially affected by the influence of Danish, as we have seen. The Southern possesses a special interest in that it was the dialect in which Alfred wrote. Most of the other literature has been lost, while a large part of this has been preserved.

75. The Norman Invasion.

The Norman Conquest of England was the next great historical event which left an impression upon the

language. The Normans, though originally a Northern race which had settled in France, had during the century and a half of their sojourn in that country become French in language as readily as the Danes had become English in England. They had adopted the manners and acquired the culture and civilization of the French, and when they took possession of England the commanding position which they occupied as a superior social and political class enabled them, although they were greatly outnumbered by the natives, to exercise a powerful influence upon the life and thought, the manners, customs, and conduct of the English. The Norman rulers of England spoke their own language,—a French dialect,—for a time, but the natives continued to speak English. The use of some one dialect of English as a national language for high and low alike was inevitable. It was only a question of time, and it was not very long until the Normans learned English and used it in ordinary intercourse. Thereafter, the use of French was rather an accomplishment than a necessity.

In 1258 the Provisions of Oxford were proclaimed in English as well as in Latin and French, and about one hundred years later English gained a place in the schools, and was employed in the courts and in the King's speech at the opening of parliament. It is not possible to set an exact date at which the language passed from the Old English to the Middle English stage of its development. The growth of a language is, like any other growth, continuous. But it is usual to assign the boundaries of the Old English period as from 450 to 1200.

If the Normans had come direct to England from their original northern home instead of spending a hundred and fifty years in France they would in all probability have been absorbed into the mass of the people as the Danes had been, and would have influenced the language in much the same way. But these invaders formed the most highly civilized as well as the most powerful class in the community, and this circumstance along with their use of an alien tongue created a deep gulf of separation between them and the mass of the population. The language thus brought into contact with English belonged, as we have seen, with Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese, to a class known as the ROMANCE LANGUAGES which with Latin form the ROMANIC or LATIN GROUP; just as the Welsh or Cymric, the Gælic, the Erse, the Manx, and the Breton form the CELTIC; and as the English, Dutch, Platt-Deutsch, and others, along with the High German, Old Norse, and Gothic, form the GERMANIC GROUP.

76. The Indo-European Family of Languages.

The table on next page exhibits the relation of the various groups at a glance:

English belongs to the Low or Coast division of the West Germanic dialects. German belongs to the High or Inland division. Our language is, therefore, more closely related to Frisian, Dutch, Platt-Deutsch, and Flemish, than to German; and to German more closely than to the Danish, Norwegian, or Icelandic of the Scandinavian branch.

The Germanic group as a whole is related distantly to every other member of the great Indo-European family. And as we find certain similarities in the words of various languages of the Germanic group, so we may expect to discover in any Germanic language many words which are similar to Latin or Greek words, for example; not because such words are borrowed from Latin or Greek, but because of the fact that the Germanic, Latin, and Greek languages are descended along with others from a common parent, the Indo-European. Brother and *frater* are the same word; so with father and *pater*, fish and *piscis*, knee and *genu*, yoke and *jugum*, six and *sex*, seven and *septem*; but none of these are *borrowed* words: they are *cognates*.

The original Indo-European language has not been spoken within historical times. It is now thought that the original home of the Aryans was somewhere in Northern or Central Europe. Guesses have been made as to the physical type to which the Aryans belonged, but the subject is very obscure. It is well to remember that identity of language does not always mean identity of race.

77. Modern Influence.

Modern English begins about the year 1500. Several very important events occurred at this time which had a powerful influence upon the language.

One of these was the introduction into England of the Art of Printing. Caxton began to print in 1477, and this naturally helped to give form and fixity to the language. He employed the dialect of the Midlands, the dialect spoken in the capital and used by Chaucer, and this became the standard written language of the country.

The Revival of Learning which followed the flight of the Greek scholars with their literary treasures after the fall of Constantinople was another event of great importance to the language. Many new avenues of research were opened up and great discoveries in astronomy and geography stimulated the thirst for knowledge and adventure. The word stock of English was, therefore, increased by a large number of loan-words from many sources. System was introduced into spelling, and dictionaries and grammars aided in regulating usage.

The last two hundred years have seen a great expansion of the British Empire and consequently of the English language. Many foreign words have been adopted as a result of the contact of English speaking people with the language, institutions, customs, arts, and industries of other countries. The growth of science and invention has made it necessary to add great numbers of new words to an ever increasing stock.

CHAPTER XXII

OLD ENGLISH, 410-1200

78. Grammar.

The grammatical system of Modern English is simple when compared with that of Old English. Similarly, the grammar of Old English is simpler than that of Gothic; which in its turn was simpler than that of Sanscrit. These languages as we have seen are later and earlier respectively in the line of descent. Simplification is a natural and inevitable process which goes on as a language grows older. The same process of simplification has taken place in the other branches of the family of languages. Evidence of this is seen when a younger representative is compared with an older one.

Sanscrit for example had eight cases, whereas Latin had six and Greek five. Sanscrit and Greek had a dual number which Latin dispensed with. The middle voice and the aorist tense of Sanscrit and Greek are absent in Latin. As Latin is less complicated than Sanscrit so the Romance Languages are simpler in their grammar than Latin.

Old English itself had dropped many forms to be found in the Gothic the oldest written language of the group to which they belong. Of the original eight cases of the earlier languages several are wanting in the languages of the Teutonic group. These eight were the Nominative for subject of a sentence; the Accusative for the direct object, and the Dative for the indirect; the Genitive or of-case; the Ablative or from-case; the Instrumental or with-case; the Locative or in-case and the

Vocative, equivalent to our Nominative of Address. In Old English these were Nominative, Genitive, Accusative, Dative, and Instrumental. Modern German still distinguishes the first four of these. English has only the remains of three, the Nominative, Genitive (possessive), and Accusative (objective), and these do not form a complete system in either nouns or pronouns.

As in Latin and Greek, so in Old English there were various declensions each with its distinctive set of endings. Instead of the simple device by which we mark the possessive case the Old English genitive was variously indicated by *es*, *e*, *re*, and *an*. All nouns had three different case forms in the plural and two or three in the singular. There were four principal ways of forming plurals: thus, *stan-as*, stones; *steorr-an*, stars; *hand-a*, hands; *lim-u*, limbs. The dual number form of the noun is absent in Teutonic languages, but that of the verb appears in Gothic, while both Gothic and Old English have dual forms for the personal pronoun. Thus in Old English we find:

1st singular, *Ic*; plural, *We*; dual (we two), *Wit*.

2nd singular, *Thu*; plural, *Ge*; dual (you two), *Git*.

Adjectives were of two kinds, strong and weak, and had nearly as many inflections as nouns. Every adjective was inflected in two ways, one method for use with a definite, the other with indefinite substantives. Thus: *wis cyning*, a wise king; *se wisa cyning*, the wise king; *god nama*, a good name; *se goda nama*, the good name. Gen. *wises cyninges*, *godes naman*; *thaes wisan cyninges*, *thaes godan naman*. Dat. *wisum cyninge*, *godum naman*; *tham wisan cyninge*, *tham godan naman*.

These forms are given not that the student may memorize them but simply as examples of the highly inflected character of the earlier forms of our language.

The inflections of the verb were numerous and there were several conjugations. For example the verb *had* in Modern English is represented in Old English by four forms and in the Gothic by no less than fifteen.

Of these fifteen forms seven are in the indicative mood, and eight in the subjunctive. The following comparative table will prove interesting :—

INDICATIVE MOOD

SINGULAR.	GOthic.	OLD ENGLISH.	CHAUCER.	MODERN ENGLISH.
1st Person	habai-da	haefde	hadde	had
2nd Person	habai-des	haefdes(t)	haddest	had
3rd Person	habai-da	haefde	hadde	had
DUAL.				
1st Person	habai-dedu			
2nd Person	habai-deduts			
PLURAL.				
1st Person	habai-dedum	haefdon	hadde(n)	had
2nd Person	habai-deduth	haefdon	hadde(n)	had
3rd Person	habai-dedun	haefdon	hadde(n)	had

The subjunctive in the Gothic contains eight distinct forms, but the Old English subjunctive differs from the indicative very slightly, and in Chaucer there is no difference whatever.

In the case of English there were circumstances connected with its history which accelerated the tendency to simplify the grammatical structure of the language. In the Old English period many changes took place as a result of the Danish invasions, which, as we have seen, so greatly affected the life of the people during the 9th

and 10th centuries, particularly in the North-eastern portion of the country.

During this period the intercourse between Danes and English led to a reduction of the number of inflections in Old English. When people of different languages come in contact with each other the niceties of form in speech are apt to be sacrificed to the all-important matter of understanding and being understood. As long as the chief purpose is served, namely, that of conveying one's idea or meaning to another, one will use the main stem of a word without paying particular attention to this or that correct inflection. The wearing away of grammatical forms in those parts of the country where the Danes were most numerous was two hundred years in advance of the same process farther south.

This gradual simplification of the language by the levelling of inflectional forms was, as we shall see later, still further accelerated during Norman times, with the result that by the close of the period of Middle English the language had practically reached much the same form that it has now. The Old English period is sometimes spoken of as the period of full inflections, the Middle English as that of levelled inflections, and the Modern as the period of lost inflections. These phrases sufficiently distinguish the three periods so long as we remember that the language spoken by our Early English ancestors was not so full of inflections then as it was in the earlier course of its development, and further that even at the present time a few inflections still remain: in short the growth of the language has been and will be continuous.

79. Vocabulary.

EARLY BORROWINGS

Before the English left their earlier home on the continent they had borrowed a small number of words from the Romans. Some of these were *calic* (chalice), *cheap*, *chalk*, *coulter*, *fuller* (of cloth), *inch*, *mile*, *mint*, *Saturday*.

A still small number were borrowed from the Britons during and after the English conquest. *Binn* (manger), *bannock*, *brat* (mantle, rag, and later, child), *brock* (badger), *dun* (colour), *mattock*, are usually accepted as belonging to this period. It is generally agreed that there are less than a dozen in all and some authorities say not more than half a dozen.

Place names of course remained in much the same way as they have been preserved in modern settlements. There are several rivers bearing the name *Avon*, and several others called *Esk* (Usk, Ux, Exe). *Pen* and *Ben* (mountain) appear frequently. Other examples are *Aber* (mouth), *Aberdeen*, *Dun* (protected place), *Dundee*, *Inch* (island), *Inchcape*, *Inver* (mouth of river), *Inverness*, *Kill* (church), *Kilmarnock*.

To these must be added a few Latin words which bear testimony to the presence and work of the Romans. These are *caster*, *chester*, and *cester*, in *Doncaster*, *Lancaster*, *Manchester*, *Leicester*, and others from *L. castra*, camp; *street*, from *strata*; *coln* in *Lincoln*, *Colchester*, *Colne*, from *colonia*, a colony; *port*, *portus*, a harbour; *wall* in *Wallbury*, *Walton*, from *vallum*, a rampart; *foss* in *Fossway*, *Fosbridge*, from *fossa*, a ditch; *wick* in *Berwick*, from *uicus*, a village.

The Christian missionaries introduced a number of Latin words and Latinized Greek words: altar, archbishop, bishop, candle, church, creed, deacon, devil, font, martyr, mass, minister, monk, nun, pope, forest, psalm, shrine, temple, etc.

SCANDINAVIAN INFLUENCE

In regard to the influence of the Scandinavian, it is important to notice that great numbers of words were then identical in the two languages. Jespersen says that "we should now have been utterly unable to tell which language they had come from if we had had no English literature before the invasion; nouns, such as man, wife, father, mother, folk, house, thing, life, sorrow, winter, summer, verbs like will, can, meet, come, bring, hear, see, think, smile, ride, stand, still, sit, set, adjectives and adverbs like full, wise, better, best, mine and thine, over and under, etc."

Two slightly differing forms of the same word in some cases stood side by side in the language for a time and in a few instances still remain but with slightly different meanings as a rule: *church* and *kirk*, *whole* and *hale*, *no* and *nay*, *rear* and *raise*, *from* and *fro*, *shirt* and *skirt*, *shot* and *scot* (*scot free*), *shriek* and *screech*. Some of these DOUBLETs are found in dialects only: true, *trig* (*tidy*, neat); leap, *loup*; yard, *garth*; churn, *kirn*; chest, *kist*.

Some instances may be given in which the Scandinavian word finally proved stronger than the corresponding English one. The struggle between the native *ey* and the invading *egg* was described many years later by Caxton in a frequently quoted passage:

“And certaynly our langage now used varyeth ferre from that whiche was used and spoken whan I was borne. For we englysshe men ben borne under the domynacyon of the mone, whiche is never stedfaste but ever waverynge, wexynge one season, and waneth & dyscreaseth another season. And that comyn englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from a nother. Insomuch that in my dayes happened that certayn merchauntes were in a shippe in taymse, for to have sayled over the see into zelande. And for lacke of wynde, thei taryed atte forlond, and wente to lande for to refreshe them. And one of them named sheffielde, a mercer, cam in-to an hows and axed for mete; and specyally he axyd after eggys. And the goode wyf answered that she coude speake no frenshe. And the merchaunt was angry, for he also coude speke no frenshe, but wolde have hadde egges, and she understode hym not. And thenne at laste a nother sayd that he wolde have eyren. Then the good wyf sayd that she understod hym wel. Loo, what sholde a man in thyse dayes now wryte, egges or eyren. Certaynly it is harde to playse every man, by case of dyversite & chaunge of langage.”

Other instances are *sister* (swuster), *kettle* (chetel), *get* (yete), *guild* (yelde), *give* (yive), *gift* (yift).

A considerable number of law terms were borrowed from the vikings, but most of them disappeared when the Norman conquerors began to govern the country. These Danish law terms show that the Scandinavian settlers reorganized the administration of the realm, imposed and collected taxes in their own fashion,

strengthened the criminal law, laying great stress on personal honour, and enacted certain rules in respect to commerce.¹

All that now remain are *law*, *by-law*, *thrall*, *crave*, *riding*. By-law comes from *by*, a town or village, as seen also in *Derby*, *Whitby*, and numerous others. *Riding* is a mutilated form of *thridding*, a third part; and we have the different "ridings" or districts of a county.

The italicised portions of the following place names are of Scandinavian origin: *Bishopsthorp*, *Cheviot*, *Crossthwaite*, *Faroe*, *Ipswich*, *Kendal*, *Lowestoft*, *Selkirk*, *Scarsdale*, *Staindrop*, *Tarnsyke*, *Wansbeck*, *Whitby*, *Wilberfell*.

The loan-words from the Danish include many commonplace every-day nouns as *husband*, *fellow*, *sky*, *skull*, *skin*, *wing*, *haven*, *root*, *skill*. Several "unpleasant" adjectives and a few pleasant ones are from this source: *meek*, *low*, *scant*, *loose*, *odd*, *wrong*, *ill*, *ugly*, *rotten*; *happy*, *seemly*, *glegg* (clever). Verbs too are commonplace: *thrive*, *die*, *cast*, *hit*, *take*, *call*, *want*, *scare*, *scrape*, *scream*, *scrub*, *scowl*, *skulk*, *bask*, *drown*, *ransack*, *gape*. The much-used pronouns *they*, *them*, *their* are Danish. The Danish word *are* supplanted the English *sindon* and *beoth*. Very important was the device of using the preposition *to* before an infinitive as it marked an important step in the escape from the tyranny of inflections.

DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE LANGUAGE

Borrowing was not the only or even the most important means of enlarging the word stock. Old English was of such a nature that new words could be formed with very little difficulty from native stems. Only such

¹ Growth and Structure of the English Language, Chap. IV.

words as could easily be assimilated were borrowed, these being chiefly names of concrete things. Native words and roots were utilized for expressing abstract ideas. The words *godhead* (divine nature), *godspraec* (oracle), *godsibb* (sponsor), *godbot* (atonement made to the church), *godspeller* (evangelist), *boceras* (bookmen, scribes), *leorning-cniht*, *leorningman* (disciple), will serve as illustrations of this power, now lost, of using the native stock to express new ideas.

The English made a further use of the resources of their language of adding native affixes to borrowed words: *preosthad* (priesthood), *biscophad* (episcopate), *cristendom* (christianity); and by modifying the sense of existing English words: *God*, *Eastron*, the goddess of spring (Easter), *synn* (sin), *housel* (sacrifice, the Eucharist).

Many new words were formed by the use of native prefixes and suffixes, as in *after-ward*, *for-get*, *mis-hap*, *off-spring*, *to-day*, *under-tow*, etc.; *king-dom*, *vix-en*, *bak-er*, *child-hood*, *kind-ness*, *friend-ship*, *two-fold*, *hap-less*, *hand-some*, etc. The endings *ham* and *ton* were used in place names (Durham, Horton); and *ing* (son of) in patronymics (Basing, Manning). There was also the method of uniting independent words to form compounds. Thus *land* enters into the composition of sixty-three compounds, *even* (evening) into twenty-six, *life* into twenty-seven.

The Old English was a wonderfully expressive tongue. Its power of multiplying specific terms to distinguish varieties and shades of meaning may be seen in the fact that in the poem *Beowulf* there are thirty-seven synonyms for *hero* or *prince*, twelve for *battle* or *fight*, seventeen for *the sea*, and eleven for *ship*.

The changes in vocabulary during the Old English period were considerable. The language must have contained many more than forty thousand words. How had it been increased? No such increase would have been possible if the people themselves had not made great progress. They had established governments, adopted a new religion, waged war upon each other and with the Danes, and had absorbed into the population a considerable number of that race. They had become acquainted with the literature of the civilized world and had created a literature of their own. The word stock was affected by these influences during the period, and by similar influences later, to such an extent that to most people it would now be a difficult task to learn Old English. Nevertheless, it is from that language that our own has gradually been developed. Indeed, there are many words that are the same to-day as they were then never having been altered in form since that time. *Corn, lamb, nest, ram, wind, hand, spell, under, his, him, word, in, bill, twist, bed, gold, can, blind, storm, is* are examples.

CHAPTER XXIII

MIDDLE ENGLISH, 1200-1500

80. Grammar.

The dialect destined to rise to the position of a national language was that of the Midland, the descendant of the Mercian. From the time of the Norman Conquest on for nearly two hundred years the dialects in England were in a sense upon an equality. The Conquest put an end to the predominance of the dialect of Wessex as an accepted literary language. Before King Alfred's time the Northumbrian seemed in a fair way to become the standard language. But it declined with the loss of the political supremacy of Northumbria. During the two hundred years between Alfred and William the Conqueror the West Saxon dialect made great progress. After 1066 the local dialects were employed without reference to West Saxon standards, and all made progress toward a position of literary excellence, but no one more than another, until toward the end of the fourteenth century.

Several reasons are given to account for the rise of the Midland. In the first place it was spoken in a territory much larger than the others, a territory moreover which included the capital and the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Owing to its central position it was better understood by Northerner and Southerner alike than either of these was by the other. It was the

Midland form of English that was employed by Wycliff in his translation of the Bible, by Chaucer in his poetry, and by Caxton when the art of printing was introduced.

The standard English of to-day is therefore not the descendant of the southern speech of Alfred, but of the Mercian dialect of the Midland. The rustic dialects of Wilts and Dorset now represent the West Saxon, while the language of the lowlands of Scotland is the descendant of the Northern. It is a mistake to regard a dialect as a degraded form of speech. On the contrary, a standard language is simply the cultivated form of a fortunate local dialect.

The grammatical system of the Midland, though more complex than the Northern, was less so than the Southern. We have already seen that the levelling of inflections went on at a more rapid rate in the Northern parts where Danish influence was strong than in the South where it was slight. In the North, as early as the 13th century, the language was almost as free from inflections as it is to-day. In the 12th century *-eth* was already taking its modern form *-es*; the final *e* of nouns was becoming mute or disappearing; the final *n* of the infinitive which in Old English was marked by the suffix *-an* was dropping off. The South, on the other hand, while it held on to the inflections longer, gave up certain consonantal sounds that still cling to Northern speech. *Kirk* and *brig* are examples. The Midland followed the example of the South in respect to some of the earlier consonantal sounds, and that of the North in the disuse of inflections.

Norman-French exerted a direct influence upon English, just as the Danish had already done, in accelerating the process of simplification by the dropping of inflections. But its main influence was exerted indirectly. The advent of the Normans, as we have seen, by reducing the West Saxon language to the status of a dialect deprived the islanders of the advantages of a recognized literary standard. When the conservative influences of literature and of schools are withdrawn from any people the speech is apt to undergo considerable modification. In the absence of the restraining power of an authoritative standard in speech, two influences combined to modify the form of English. The accent or stress which in English and other Teutonic languages was fixed upon a single syllable of each word was so marked a feature of pronunciation that the unstressed parts of words tended to fall away, and this particularly affected inflections as these have always been unstressed. Inflected syllables were thus weakened and lost. The second influence is that of analogy. The child who says *mans*, *foots*, *gooder*, *goodest*, *runned*, *drinked*, etc., is only obeying a natural and laudable impulse to regularize his speech, and this tendency has always been operative in the speech of adults. These changes have come about slowly and steadily. They were inevitable from the first, and were simply hastened, not produced, by foreign influences. In all the members of the Indo-European family the natural process of simplification has been going gradually and steadily forward. In English it has gone further than in any other modern language of its group.

81. Vocabulary.

FRENCH INFLUENCE

The changes which took place in the word stock of English as the direct result of its contact with French have already been hinted at. French words relating to government, the administration of law, feudalism, military affairs, and church matters were borrowed in considerable numbers. At the same time the rubbing off of inflections already referred to continued at a greater rate than ever. The process of simplification of the language went on apace in all the dialects, Northern, Midland, and Southern; although as before the changes were most rapid in the north and least so in the south.

French influence was at work in England before the Conqueror came. Edward the Confessor had strong French sympathies and introduced into his kingdom many French nobles and priests. At the Conquest what was a mere influence before became a positive power in the land. English was deposed from its place as the language of literature and of political life. It would be incorrect to say that it was no longer the language of national life because the life of the nation flowed on continuously in the old way. The higher positions in the state and in the church were in the hands of foreigners, it is true, but the mass of the nation remained English in life, thought, and speech.

The following passage is taken from a description of the effect of the Norman occupation, the words of Romance origin being printed in italics:

“Earls and lords were *placed* in *rank* below his *dukes* and *marquises*. New *titles* and *dignities*, of *viscount*,

baron, and *baronet*, *squire* and *master* were created; the *mayor* presided over the English aldermen and sheriff; and the *chancellor* and the *peer*, the *ambassador* and the *chamberlain*, the *general* and the *admiral* headed the list of officers of the government."

The home life of the English is set forth in what follows, the nouns and verbs of native origin being italicised:

"But the dominion of the Norman did not extend to the home of the *Englishman*; it stopped at the threshold of his house; there around the *fireside* in his *kitchen* and the *hearth* of his room he met his beloved kindred; the *bride*, the *wife*, and the *husband*, sons and daughters, brothers and sisters tied to each other by love, friendship, and kind feelings, knew nothing dearer than their own sweet home.

"The *Englishman's* flocks, still grazing in his fields and meadows, gave him milk and butter, meat and wool; the *herdsman* watched them in spring and summer; the *ploughman* drew his furrows, and used his harrows, and in harvest the cart and the flail. The reaper plied his scythe, piled up sheaves, and hauled his wheat, oats and rye to the barn. The *waggoner* drove his wain with its wheels, felloes, spokes, and nave, and his team bent heavily under their yoke.

"In his trade by land and sea he still sold and bought; in the store or the shop, the market or the street he cheapened his goods, etc."¹

In addition to the nouns and verbs italicised in this passage there are several adjectives of English origin,

¹ Quoted from DeVere by Dalglish in "Higher Grade English."

and the very framework of the sentences is composed of English prepositions, articles, and pronouns, without which any sentence would be but a hopeless confusion of words.

A very large number of French words entered the language during this period, but we are not to suppose that the spoken language changed rapidly. Indeed French words are far from numerous in most of the literature of the day. Less than 20 common French words appear in the Saxon Chronicle ending nearly a century after the Conquest. Outside of proper names there are not 30 French words in the 20,000 lines of the *Ormulum* written in the East Midland dialect in 1225. In Layamon's *Brut* (1205) there are only 150 French words in 56,000 lines. The *Ancren Riwle* (Rules for Nuns), a prose work of that day in the southern dialect, contains a considerable number of words of Latin and French origin, but this was perhaps due to the character of the subject matter.

A painstaking scholar, Jespersen, made a list of one thousand French words, the first hundred in the New English Dictionary for each of the first nine letters and the first fifty for j and l. He then noted the date of the earliest quotations containing these words, and found that only 20 or 2% entered the literature of English before the year 1200, and only 84, or not quite 8½% before 1250. During the period from 1250 to 1450 no less than 497, or practically 50%, of these words were incorporated. The greatest inflow occurred during the hundred and fifty year period from 1250 to 1400, when 427 words were accounted for.

The following table¹ given by Jespersen gives the half century to which the earliest quotation in the New English Dictionary belongs:

Before 1050.....	2
1051-1100.....	2
1100-1150.....	1
1151-1200.....	15
1201-1250.....	64
1251-1300.....	127
1301-1350.....	120
1351-1400.....	180
1401-1450.....	70
1451-1500.....	76
1501-1550.....	84
1551-1600.....	91
1601-1650.....	69
1651-1700.....	34
1701-1750.....	24
1751-1800.....	16
1801-1850.....	23
1851-1900.....	2
	<hr/>
	1000

This list seems to show (1) that borrowing did not begin immediately after the Conquest; (2) that it was at its height in the twelve and thirteen hundreds; and (3) that nearly as many French words entered the language in the thirteen hundreds as have come in during the whole modern period.

The general character of the borrowings during the middle period has already been indicated. Let us take

¹ Growth and Structure of the English Language, Chapter V.

words of French origin relating to government, law, war, the church, occupations, family terms, and words of address, and examine them alongside of similar native terms:

ENGLISH: King, queen, lord, earl, knight, town, aldermen.

FRENCH: *baron, countess, duke, marquis, viscount, crown, throne, prince, peer, royal, parliament, council, sceptre, realm, sovereign, mayor, city, county, manor, tax, rent.*

ENGLISH: law (Norse), reeve, sheriff, theft, murder, steal.

FRENCH: *court, judge, jury, justice, sue, suit, plaintiff, defendant, plea, assize, crime, felony, traitor, prison, jail, property, privilege, petty, session, puisne, heir, male, malice, prepense.*

ENGLISH: fight, spear, sword, weapon.

FRENCH: *war, peace, battle, arms, armour, buckler, mail, lance, officer, lieutenant, captain, etc., navy, enemy, danger, guard.*

ENGLISH: God, Easter, sin.

FRENCH: *religion, service, Saviour, saint, abbey, absolution, baptize, orison, miracle, pray, preach, altar, clergy, confessor, paradise, purgatory, trinity.*

ENGLISH: baker, shoemaker, smith, waggoner, weaver, wheelwright.

FRENCH: *barber, butcher, carpenter, chandler, cutler, grocer, mason, tailor.*

ENGLISH: father, mother, brother, son, daughter.

FRENCH: *aunt, uncle, cousin, nephew, niece.*

ENGLISH: goodman, goodwife, gossip.

FRENCH: *Madame, mister, mistress, sir.*

A number of ABSTRACT TERMS were borrowed : *honour, glory, fame, colour, dignity* ; GENERAL ART TERMS : *design, art, beauty, ornament, image* ; terms relating to ARCHITECTURE : *arch, tower, pillar, vault, porch, aisle, choir, reredos*, etc.

Alfred, Edward, Edith, Ethel are English. *Charles, Cecil, Clarence, Claude, Francis, Guy, Henry, John, Ann, Clare, Dorothy, Emily* are French.

Sir Walter Scott, in the conversation between Gurth and Wamba, in *Ivanhoe*, deals with the use of certain terms as follows :

“Gurth, I advise thee to call off Fangs, and leave the herd to their destiny, which, whether they meet with bands of travelling soldiers, or of outlaws, or of wandering pilgrims, can be little else than to be converted into Normans before morning, to thy no small ease and comfort.”

“The swine turned Normans to my comfort !” quoth Gurth ; “expound that to me, Wamba, for my brain is too dull, and my mind too vexed, to read riddles.”

“Why, how call you those grunting brutes running about on their four legs ?” demanded Wamba.

“Swine, fool, swine,” said the herd, “every fool knows that.”

“And swine is good Saxon,” said the Jester ; “but how call you the sow when she is flayed, and drawn, and quartered, and hung up by the heels, like a traitor ?”

“Pork,” answered the swineherd.

“I am very glad every fool knows that too,” said Wamba, “and pork, I think, is good Norman-French ; and so

when the brute lives, and is in the charge of a Saxon slave, she goes by her Saxon name ; but becomes a Norman, and is called pork when she is carried to the Castle-hall to feast among the nobles ; what dost thou think of this, friend Gurth, ha ? ”

“ It is but too true doctrine, friend Wamba, however it got into thy fool’s pate.”

“ Nay, I can tell you more,” said Wamba, in the same tone ; “ there is old Alderman Ox continues to hold his Saxon epithet, while he is under the charge of serfs and bondsman such as thou, but becomes Beef, a fiery French gallant, when he arrives before the worshipful jaws that are destined to consume him. Mynheer Calf, too, becomes Monsieur de Veau in the like manner ; he is Saxon when he requires tendance, and takes a Norman name when he becomes matter of enjoyment.”

BI-LINGUAL CHARACTER OF ENGLISH

Another notable effect of French influence is the bi-lingual character of English. The following pairs illustrate this: hut, *cottage* ; clothe, *dress* ; friendship, *amity* ; help, *aid* ; folk, *people* ; hearty, *cordial* ; love, *charity* ; deed, *action* ; hide, *conceal* ; foe, *enemy* ; bold, *courageous*. The custom common probably in conversation, as well as writing, of using terms from both languages continued for a long time. The Ancren Riwe (1225) has “ cherite, thet is luvē,” “ in desperaunce, thet is in unhope,” “ ignorance, thet is unwisdom, unwotnesse.” Much later, the English Prayer Book (1549) employed the same device: “ acknowledge and confess,” “ sins and wickedness,” “ not dissemble nor cloke,” etc.

CHAPTER XXIV

MODERN ENGLISH FROM 1500

82. Grammar.

The inflections that remained at the beginning of the the Modern period may be enumerated: the possessive 's and the plural *s* and *en* in nouns; the personal endings *st*, *th*, and *s*, tense endings in *t* and *d*, and the *ing*, *en*, and *ed* of the participles and gerund of the verb; *er* and *est*, and the auxiliaries *more* and *most* in the comparison of adjectives; and the few inflections in pronouns.

The gradual disuse of inflectional forms as a means of expressing the relations of words in the sentence is the most significant feature in the history of the grammar of English. Our study of the grammar of present day English has shown us that these relations are now indicated by other means: by the use of prepositions and auxiliaries, and a regular word-order. These facts are briefly expressed in the statement that Old English was a Synthetic Language, whereas Modern English is an Analytic Language. The change from the highly inflected system of Old English to the simplicity of English now in use was a process due to certain tendencies within the language itself. The reduction in the number of inflectional forms would have taken place in any case. All that the Danish and Norman Conquests accomplished in this direction was to hasten the process of simplification by which our language became analytic. The change from an inflected to an analytic language has given a straightforward and business like quality to English. It has been remarked that "Words in English

do not play at hide-and-seek as they often do in Latin for instance, or in German, where ideas that by right belong together are widely sundered in obedience to caprice, or more often to a rigorous grammatical rule.”¹

83. Vocabulary.

The introduction of the art of printing into England was a long step in the direction of “standardizing” the language. In a sense the invention of the printing press was the beginning of the modern period. When the Turks captured Constantinople, the Greek scholars fled into Italy where the literary and artistic revival began. Thence it spread to the other countries of Europe. A vast number of words now came into the language, chiefly of Latin origin. It was a time of great intellectual activity in all branches of knowledge. The great geographical discoveries, the extension of science, the religious conflicts, the new ideas spread abroad through classical study combined to render necessary an extension of the language so that adequate expression might be found for the stock of ideas. There began, moreover, a considerable and increasing intercourse with Germany, the Low Countries, France, and Spain.

In order to account for the immense number of Latin words which passed into the language we need only remind ourselves of the position of Latin as the language of the church, of law, of government, of diplomacy as well as of general literary culture throughout Europe at the beginning of the modern era. Many of these words were adopted into the language for the purpose of

¹ Jespersen: *Growth and Structure of the English Language*.

expressing delicate shades of meaning in philosophical or religious thought, and began their career in many cases as mere "inkhorn terms." The life of some of them was quite short. Others drag out a lingering existence in the dictionary. *Indubitate festinately, consociate, expulsed, mansuetude, stultiloquy, discerptibility, deturpate, tetric, cecity, trutinate, scelestick, pervicacy, stramineous, lepid, sufflamine* are examples of words which have not come into general use.

So numerous were the Latin words pouring into the language that some began to fear that English would be swamped. John Milton's teacher, the headmaster of St. Paul's School, said in 1619, "I hear now all around me such words as vices, envy, malice; even virtue, study, justice, pity, mercy, compassion, profit, commodity, colour, grace, favour, acceptance. But whither I pray in all the world, have you banished those words which our forefathers used for these new fangled ones?" A writer in Queen Elizabeth's time condemned the following as innovations: *audacious, compatible, egregious, despicable, destruction, homicide, obsequious, ponderous, portentous, prodigious, attemptat, facundity, implete*, of which all but the last three are now in general use. The flood of Latin may have been checked by the Reformation which was certainly a Teutonic movement. Or the language may have reached a "saturation" point. At any rate a very large number of words borrowed by one generation were rejected by the next. Borrowings from the classical languages did not cease with the Renaissance. Whenever we want a word to express a new idea in art or science we still borrow from both Greek and Latin.

A notable feature of the introduction of words direct from Latin was that the language already possessed a good many borrowed from the French which were now duplicated, and in some cases three forms appeared. *Loyal, leal, and legal*; *royal, real, and regal*, are examples of the latter. The Latin *discus* has given us four: *disc, dish, desk, dais*. Through the French we have taken *benison, caitiff, conceit, fashion, fealty, feat, lesson, poignant, prudence, treason*. Direct from Latin have come *benediction, captive, conception, faction, fidelity, fact, lection, pungent, providence, tradition*. Words thus derived from the same original root, but differing in form and meaning are known as DOUBLETs, and the formation of such duplicates is one of the ways in which the vocabulary has been enriched.

If 60% of our word stock is Latin and 10% from Greek and other sources, we have still 30% English. And the English element is the indispensable part of it. It is the element that we most constantly employ. The connective words, prepositions and conjunctions, pronouns and auxiliary verbs and the numerals up to a thousand are English. All strong verbs, many weak ones, and all adjectives irregularly compared are English. Words used in every day intercourse are chiefly English: those relating to family and kindred, to the house and the farm, to common actions and things, to parts of the body, and to common natural objects and phenomena. In the dictionary each word appears but once. In the works of any writer or speaker whose vocabulary we wish to examine many words occur frequently and certain words are repeated over and over again. The dictionary estimate is important but the currency

estimate is also important. In choosing from an author's works a passage to illustrate his use of words we must remember that the subject upon which he is writing may compel him to use more words of classical origin than some other subject.

Taking the currency estimate giving credit to each word as often as it occurs the following table shows the proportion of native words used by these writers: The Bible 96%, Shakespeare 90%, Chaucer 88%, Tennyson 88%, Spenser 86%, Addison 82%, Milton 81%, Pope 80%, Macaulay 75%, Swift 75%, Hume 73%, Johnson 72%, Gibbon 70%.¹

Another method is to find out what proportion of the Latin vocabulary has been taken over into English. Of 3,000 words counted by Greenough and Kittredge under A in the Latin Dictionary, 154, *i.e.*, one in twenty have been adopted bodily in some Latin form, and a little over five hundred have some English representative taken or supposed to be taken through the French. Taking this as a basis we seem to have appropriated at least a quarter of the Latin vocabulary.²

The classical words borrowed during the modern period have enriched the language greatly. But while this is true, and while the composite character of a language gives variety and precision to style it also opens the door to extravagance and superfluity. It is said that when Canning used the words "he died poor" in the inscription on Pitt's monument in the Guildhall an alderman was shocked at this phrase, and suggested

¹ Emerson: Outline History of the English Language, Chapter X.

² Words and their Ways in English Speeches, Chapter VIII.

“he expired in indigent circumstances” as more appropriate. “In the absence of the feline race the mice give themselves up to various pastimes” is of a different sort merely intended as an amusing variant of a familiar saying. Not so Dr. Johnson’s statement: “The proverbial oracles of our parsimonious ancestors have informed us that the fatal waste of our fortune is by small expenses, by the profusion of sums too little singly to alarm our caution, and which we never suffer ourselves to consider together. Of the same kind is the prodigality of life; he that hopes to look back hereafter with satisfaction upon past years must learn to know the present value of single minutes, and endeavour to let no particle of time fall useless to the ground.” Minto in his *Manual of English Prose* has done this into: “‘Take of the pennies,’ says the thrifty old proverb, ‘and the pounds will take care of themselves.’ In like manner we might say ‘Take care of the minutes and the years will take care of themselves.’”

During the Restoration period French became popular, and considerable borrowing took place. It is estimated that this later French element is probably larger than from any other single source except the Latin of scientific usage. Many words borrowed during the seventeenth century show their origin by accent on the last syllable such as *adroit*, *bagatelle*, *burlesque*, *cadet*, *cajole*, *campaign*, *caprice*, *caress*, *chagrin*, *coquette*, *festoon*, *grimace*, *guitar*, *harangue*, *intrigue*, *grotesque*, *incommode*, *volunteer*, *reprimand*, etc.

Greek as well as Latin has been drawn upon continuously ever since the fifth century. Words have in the

modern period been carried from Greek direct. In earlier periods they passed through Latin or French on their way. *Analysis, hydrophobia, telephone, anthology, epidemic, aesthetic* are examples of direct borrowing.

In the eighteenth century many musical terms came from Italy: *sonata, spinet, fugue, duet, contralto, opera, piano, prima donna, solo, soprano, trio, falsetto*, etc.; some words relating to poetry: *canto, sonnet, stanza, improvise*; to architecture: *piazza, portico*, etc.; to painting: *profile, miniature, palette, fresco, mezzotinto*, etc.¹

Commercial and political relations with Spain led to the introduction of a number of words: *Armada, cargo, cigar, cork, creole, embargo, filibuster, flotilla, negro, punctilio, tornado, veranda*.

The Portuguese have given us less than fifty words. Examples are *caste, corvette, marmalade, cocoa, molasses*.

A few nautical terms have come from the Dutch: *Boom, schooner, sloop, yacht*. From the Celtic dialects a small number of words have been borrowed: *brogue, clan, claymore, ghillie, kilt, pibroch, plaid, sporran, slogan, whiskey*, from Scotland; and *banshee, keen, kern, shamrock, shillelagh, spalpeen, tory*, from Ireland.

Owing to the spread of commerce in every part of the world, words have been borrowed from Arabic: (*admiral, alcohol, algebra, assassin, cotton, mosque, sirocco, zero*); from Persia (*azure, bazaar, checkmate, chess, dervish, lilac, orange, shawl*); from Hindustan (*bangle, bungalow, buggy, calico, coolie, jungle, nabob, toddy*); from Hebrew

¹ Nesfield : English Past and Present, Chapter XXII.

(*balsam, bedlam, shekel*, and religious terms, *amen, cherub, seraph, hallelujah*); from the American Indians (*hammock, maize, moose, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, totem, opossum, wigwam*, etc.).

This extensive borrowing from other languages is due to a kind of mental indolence in English-speaking people, not to any deficiency in the language. An example¹ of the use to which English may be put is given in the words applied by Australians to the entirely strange birds, beasts, trees, and flowers of that country: *Friar-bird, frogsmouth, honey-eater, ground-lark, forty-spot, long-fin, trimpeter, sugar-grass, hedge-laurel, ironheart, thousand-jacket, whip-bird, lyre-bird*, were so used as well as words adopted from the native language as *kangaroo, wombat*.

The English language when the clear cut character of its phonetic system is considered though less musical than some others possesses vigour and energy in a marked degree. There is no lack of distinctness in the use of consonants except, perhaps, in the case of the letter *r*, which in some districts is either a vowel or nothing at all. As compared with other languages there are not many diminutives, and the habit of the people who speak English is to be rather sparing in the use of them. The word order lends itself to simplicity and directness, and yet admits of variation for the purpose of emphasis. The love of liberty which seems to be part of the national character has expressed itself in the steady and persistent refusal of English-speaking people to allow any interference with their right to employ such words, phrases, and constructions generally as seem

¹Jespersion : Growth and Structure of the English Language, Chap. VII.

right in their own eyes without undue deference to the whims of linguistic purists.

EXERCISES

1. *What languages were spoken in the British Islands in the year 500? in the year 800? in the year 1100?*
2. *Distinguish between borrowed words and cognate words.*
3. *Explain the use of the term Romance Languages.*
4. *Show how the intercourse between Danes and English led to a reduction in the number of inflections in Old English.*
5. *Mention some of the words borrowed from the Romans by the English before coming to Britain.*
6. *Mention a few Danish loan-words.*
7. *Show by examples how our ancestors utilized native words in expressing abstract ideas.*
8. *Mention some facts in history that might help to explain the following words: Avon, Doncaster, Derby, Oxford, Ouse, Watling Street, Lincoln, Durham, Uxbridge, Montgomery.*
9. *What can you say of the languages spoken in Britain at the coming of the English?*
10. *What reason can you give for the small number of Celtic words coming into use among our old English ancestors?*
11. *Mention the names of the low German languages.*
12. *Mention the names of the three old English dialects which rose to literary prominence, and indicate the geographical area in which they were spoken.*
13. *Which of these was least affected by Danish influence.*
14. *When and under what circumstances was the classical element introduced into English?*

15. *From what languages do the following words come?—husband, sister, gossip, widow, loyal, mayor, sheriff, alderman, madam, bishopric, Chester, chief, capital, chapter, caitiff, captive, omnibus, mathematics, disastrous, folio, conceit, conception, villain, fellowship, are, they, book, prevent, wit, schooner, amen, seraph, minister, angel, brave, piano, portico.*

16. *Mention a few words which have come into English directly from the Classical Languages. Mention some which have come by way of the Romance Languages.*

17. *Explain the terms : bilingualism, doublet, cognate, dialect.*

18. *Find out the origin of the names of the days of the week and the names of the months.*

19. *What facts in the history of English does the existence of the doublets church and kirk, antic and antique, eatable and edible, ward and guard point to ?*

20. *Discuss the following statements :*

(a) *A dialect is a degraded form of a standard language.*

(b) *A standard language is the cultivated form of a fortunate local dialect.*

21. *What exactly is meant by the statement that two languages are related.*

22. *Draw a map of the course of a river to represent the English language, shewing the separate existence of three contributory dialects down to the twelve hundreds, and also the streams of Celtic, Latin, Danish, Norman-French, and Renaissance influence.*

23. *How do we find names for new things (games, inventions, political, social and scientific ideas) ?*

24. *Make a list of Canadian place names borrowed from the Indian languages.*

APPENDIX

DOUBLE PLURALS

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
brother	brothers (by birth)	brethren (of a community.)
cloth	cloths (kinds of cloth)	clothes (garments)
die	dies (for coining)	dice (for gaming)
fish	fishes (singly)	fish (collectively)
genius	geniuses (men of talent)	genii (spirits)
index	indexes (tables of contents)	indices (in Algebra)
pea	peas (singly)	pease (collectively)
penny	pennies (singly)	pence (collectively)
shot	shots (discharges)	shot (balls)

PLURALS OF FOREIGN WORDS.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
focus	foci	phenomenon	phenomena
genus	genera	curriculum	curricula
datum	data	stratum	strata
memorandum	memoranda	radix	radices
analysis	analyses	hypothesis	hypotheses
parenthesis	parentheses	crisis	crises
oasis	oases	axis	axes
cherub	cherubim	seraph	seraphim
bandit	banditti	beau	beaux
tableau	tableaux		

GENDER :—INDICATED BY INFLECTION : “ess.”

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
abbot	abbess	master	mistress
actor	actress	mayor	mayoress
adventurer	adventuress	negro	negress
ambassador	ambassadress	patron	patroness
arbiter	arbitress	peer	peeress
author	authoress	poet	poetess
baron	baroness	priest	priestess
benefactor	benefactress	prince	princess
conductor	conductress	preceptor	preceptress
count	countess	prior	prioress
dauphin	dauphiness	prophet	prophetress
duke	duchess	protector	protectress
elector	electress	shepherd	shepherdess
emperor	empress	songster	songstress
enchanter	enchantress	tiger	tigress
giant	giantess	sorcerer	sorceress
god	goddess	traitor	traitress
governor	governess	waiter	waitress
heir	heiress	viscount	viscountess
hunter	huntress	votary	votaress
host	hostess	idolator	idolatress
Jew	Jewess	lion	lioness
marquis	marchioness		

OTHER TERMINATIONS TO INDICATE GENDER.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
hero	heroine
landgrave	landgravine

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
margrave	margravine	czar	czarina
administrator	administratrix	sultan	sultana
executor	executrix	alumnus	alumna
testator	testatrix	widower	widow

SOME EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF DIFFERENT WORDS
TO DISTINGUISH GENDER.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
bachelor	maid	husband	wife
beau	belle	king	queen
boy	girl	lad	lass
brother	sister	landlord	landlady
buck	doe	lord	lady
bull	cow	man	woman
bullock	heifer	nephew	niece
drake	duck	papa	mamma
earl	countess	ram	ewe
father	mother	stag	hind
friar	nun	son	daughter
gander	goose	uncle	aunt
gentleman	lady	wizard	witch
hart	roe		

SOME IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
by	good	better	best
different	bad, evil, or ill	worse	worst
words	little	less or lesser	least
	much or many	more	most

	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
	fore	former	foremost, first
	forth (adv.)	further	furthest
	near	nearer	nearest or next
by	hind	hinder	hindmost
irregular	in (adv.)	inner	inmost, inner-
termina-			most
tions		nether	nethermost
	top		topmost
	up (adv.)	upper	uppermost

A LIST OF STRONG VERBS:—THREE DISTINCT FORMS.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
bear	bore	borne
begin	began	begun
bid	bade	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given

*Present Tense.**Past Tense.**Past Participle.*

go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
slay	slew	slain
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
strike	struck	stricken
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swollen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
threw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written

A LIST OF STRONG AND WEAK VERBS:—TWO DISTINCT FORMS.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
abide	abode	abode
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft	bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bind	bound	bound
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cling	clung	clung
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
get	got	got
grind	ground	ground
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led

*Present Tense.**Past Tense.**Past Participle.*

leave

left

left

lend

lent

lent

lose

lost

lost

make

made

made

mean

meant

meant

meet

met

met

pay

paid

paid

read

read

read

rend

rent

rent

seek

sought

sought

sell

sold

sold

shine

shone

shone

shoe

shod

shod

shoot

shot

shot

sit

sat

sat

sleep

slept

slept

spend

spent

spent

spin

spun

spun

stand

stood

stood

stick

stuck

stuck

sting

stung

stung

string

strung

strung

sweep

swept

swept

swing

swung

swung

teach

taught

taught

tell

told

told

think

thought

thought

wake

woke

waked or
woke

weep

wept

wept

wind

wound

wound

wring

wrung

wrung

A LIST OF VERBS WITH ONE FORM IN THE PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit	knit
let	let	let
put	put	put
rid	rid	rid
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
thrust	thrust	thrust
wet	wet	wet

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB SMITE.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
smite	smote	smitten

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD. I.—PRESENT TENSES.

Present Indefinite.

*Singular**Plural.*

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1. I smite | 1. We smite |
| 2. Thou smitest | 2. Ye (or you) smite |
| 3. He smites | 3. They smite |

Present Imperfect.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I am smiting | 1. We are smiting |
| 2. Thou art smiting | 2. You are smiting |
| 3. He is smiting | 3. They are smiting |

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I have smitten | 1. We have smitten |
| 2. Thou hast smitten | 2. You have smitten |
| 3. He has smitten | 3. They have smitten |

Present Perfect Continuous.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I have been smiting | 1. We have been smiting |
| 2. Thou hast been smiting | 2. You have been smiting |
| 3. He has been smiting | 3. They have been smiting |

II.—PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. I smote | 1. We smote |
| 2. Thou smotest | 2. You smote |
| 3. He smote | 3. They smote |

Past Imperfect.

Singular.

1. I was smiting
2. Thou wast smiting
3. He was smiting

Plural.

1. We were smiting
2. You were smiting
3. They were smiting

Past Perfect.

1. I had smitten
2. Thou hadst smitten
3. He had smitten

1. We had smitten
2. You had smitten
3. They had smitten

Past Perfect Continuous.

1. I had been smiting
2. Thou hadst been smiting
3. He had been smiting

1. We had been smiting
2. You had been smiting
3. They had been smiting

III.—FUTURE TENSES.

Future Indefinite.

1. I shall smite
2. Thou wilt smite
3. He will smite

1. We shall smite
2. You will smite
3. They will smite

Future Imperfect.

1. I shall be smiting
2. Thou wilt be smiting
3. He will be smiting

1. We shall be smiting
2. You will be smiting
3. They will be smiting

Future Perfect.

1. I shall have smitten
2. Thou wilt have smitten
3. He will have smitten

1. We shall have smitten
2. You will have smitten
3. They will have smitten

Future Perfect Continuous.

Singular.

1. I shall have been smiting
2. Thou wilt have been smiting
3. He will have been smiting

Plural.

1. We shall have been smiting
2. You will have been smiting
3. They will have been smiting

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 2. Smite | 2. Smite |
| 3. Let him smite | 3. Let them smite |

Future Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 2. Thou shalt smite | 2. You shall smite |
| 3. He shall smite | 3. They shall smite |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

(After *if, that, though, lest, etc.*).

I.—PRESENT TENSES.

Present Indefinite.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. I smite | 1. We smite |
| 2. Thou smite | 2. You smite |
| 3. He smite | 3. They smite |

Present Imperfect.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I be smiting | 1. We be smiting |
| 2. Thou be smiting | 2. You be smiting |
| 3. He be smiting | 3. They be smiting |

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I have smitten | 1. We have smitten |
| 2. Thou have smitten | 2. You have smitten |
| 3. He have smitten | 3. They have smitten |

Present Perfect Continuous.

Singular.

1. I have been smiting
2. Thou have been smiting
3. We have been smiting

Plural.

1. We have been smiting
2. You have been smiting
3. They have been smiting

II.—PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. I smote | 1. We smote |
| 2. Thou smote | 2. You smote |
| 3. He smote | 3. They smote |

Past Imperfect.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I were smiting | 1. We were smiting |
| 2. Thou wert smiting | 2. You were smiting |
| 3. He were smiting | 3. They were smiting |

Past Perfect.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I had smitten | 1. We had smitten |
| 2. Thou had smitten | 2. You had smitten |
| 3. He had smitten | 3. They had smitten |

Past Perfect Continuous.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I had been smiting | 1. We had been smiting |
| 2. Thou had been smiting. | 2. You had been smiting |
| 3. He had been smiting | 3. They had been smiting |

III.—FUTURE TENSES.

Future Indefinite.

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I should smite | 1. We should smite |
| 2. Thou wouldst smite | 2. You would smite |
| 3. He would smite | 3. They would smite |

Future Imperfect.

Singular.

1. I should be smiting
2. Thou wouldst be smiting
3. He would be smiting

Plural.

1. We should be smiting
2. You would be smiting
3. They would be smiting

Future Perfect.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I should have smitten | 1. We should have smitten |
| 2. Thou wouldst have smitten | 2. You would have smitten |
| 3. He would have smitten | 3. They would have smitten |

Future Perfect Continuous.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. I should have been smiting | 1. We should have been
smiting |
| 2. Thou wouldst have been
smiting | 2. You would have been
smiting |
| 3. He would have been smiting | 3. They would have been
smiting |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- Present Indefinite(to) smite
 Present Imperfect.....(to) be smiting
 Present Perfect(to) have smitten
 Present Perfect Continuous.....(to) have been smiting

PARTICIPLES.

- Present Imperfectsmiting
 Present Perfect.....having smitten
 Present Perfect Continuous.....having been smiting

GERUND.

- Present.....smiting Perfect....having smitten

PASSIVE VOICE.**INDICATIVE MOOD. I.—PRESENT TENSES.**

Present Indefinite I am smitten
 Present Imperfect I am being smitten
 Present Perfect I have been smitten

II.—PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite I was smitten
 Past Imperfect I was being smitten
 Past Perfect I had been smitten

III.—FUTURE TENSES.

Future Indefinite I shall be smitten
 Future Imperfect (None)
 Future Perfect I shall have been smitten

IMPERATIVE MOOD. I.—PRESENT TENSE.*Singular.**Plural.*

2. Be (thou) smitten

2. Be (you or ye) smitten

II.—FUTURE TENSE.

2. Thou shalt be smitten

2. You shall be smitten

3. He shall be smitten

3. They shall be smitten

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. I.—PRESENT TENSES.

Present Indefinite (If) I be smitten
 Present Imperfect (None)
 Present Perfect (If) I have been smitten

II.—PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite (If) I were smitten
 Past Imperfect (If) I were being smitten
 Past Perfect (If) I had been smitten

III.—FUTURE TENSES.

Future Indefinite	(If) I should be smitten
Future Imperfect	(None)
Future Perfect	(If) I should have been smitten

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite	(to) be smitten
Present Perfect	(to) have been smitten

PARTICIPLES.

Indefinite	smitten
Present	being smitten
Past	having been smitten

PREPOSITIONS.

Certain words require special prepositions. The following list will be found useful for reference:

1.

Accord with	Disappointed with (a thing)
Acquaint with	Disgusted with
Agree with (a person)	Interfere with
Change with (a person)	Overwhelmed with shame.
Confer with	Part with (a thing)
Consistent with	Provide with (food, etc.)
Contrast with	Reconcile with (a statement)
Correspond with	Tax with (a crime)
Differ with (a person)	

2.

Accuse of	Enamoured of
Acquit of	Exclusive of
Ask of (a person)	Glad of (a possession)
Boast of	Guilty of
Capable of	Hold of (take hold)
Careful of	Independent of
Deprive of	Need of
Despair of	Share of
Die of (a disease)	Significant of
Disappointed of (what we cannot get)	Taste of (food)
Disapprove	True of
Dispose of	Warn of
Divested of	Worthy of

3.

Arrive at	Call at (a place)
Blush at (the mention of a thing)	Disgusted at
	Glad at (a piece of news)

4.

Die by (violence)	Followed by
Distinguished by (a mark)	Profit by

5.

Confer on (give)	Intent on
Dependent on	Look on (what is present)
Fall upon (an enemy)	Reckon on
Founded on	Resolve on
Hold on (a hold on him)	Wait on

6.

Acquiesce in	Instruct in
Confide in (trust in)	Involved in
Deficient in	Persevere in
Disappointed in (what we have got)	Poor in
Embark in	Rich in
Engage in (work)	Share in

7.

Adapted to (by intention)	Exception to (a statement)
Agree to (a proposal)	Grateful to (another)
Antipathy to	Indifferent to
Assent to	Inured to
Averse to	Martyr to (a disease)
Banish to	Object to
Confide to (intrust to)	Offensive to
Correspond to (suit)	Opposite to
Convenient to (a person or place)	Reconcile to (a person)
	Similar to

8.

Avert from	Distinguished from (another thing)
Banish from	Exception from (a rule)
Differ from (a statement)	Fall from (a height)
Different from	Protect others from

9.

Adapted for (by nature)

Affection for

Ask for (a thing)

Blush for (an act)

Convenient for (a purpose)

Die for (another)

Engage for (a time)

Grateful for (favours)

Look for (what is absent)

Martyr for (a cause)

Provide for (a person)

Taste for (art)

Tax for (a purpose)

Wait for



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